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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1904.

The Week.

Secretary Hay's note is meeting with a favorable reception in Germany and France, and, presumably, England. Textually it reads:

"You will express to the Minister of Foreign Affairs the earnest desire of the Government of the United States that, in the course of the military operations which have begun between Russia and Japan, the neutrality of China, and in all practicable ways, her administrative entity, shall be respected by both parties, and that the area of hostilities shall be localized and limited as much as possible, so that undue excitement and disturbance of the Chinese people may be prevented and the least possible loss to the commerce and peaceful enterprise of the world may be occasioned."

In other words, what Mr. Hay seeks is to carry out the policy of the Powers that went to the rescue of the legations in Pekin—Russia and Japan being, of course, left out. The avowed aim of that unparalleled military expedition and of the subsequent diplomatic arrangements was to protect China at once from herself and from foreign aggression. An inviolable Chinese Empire, under an international guarantee, was the end and object then, and it is in order to maintain it during and after the war that Mr. Hay is now addressing the chancelleries concerned. The strict neutrality of China was seen to be the surest means of preventing the other Powers from becoming involved in the war.

It cannot be doubted that our Government sincerely desires to keep its hands off. Secretary Moody's speech at the Lincoln dinner last Friday night is regarded as an official confirmation of this country's neutrality. The indications are that France has not the slightest desire to be drawn into active support of Russia. Nor has Great Britain displayed any eagerness to come to the support of her new Oriental ally. And as for Germany, while her sympathies are believed to be with Russia in the present war, she has no motive for taking part in the struggle. In fact, it is to the Kaiser's eagerness to make China maintain a strict neutrality that Secretary Hay's note to the Powers may be traced. The suggestion is said to have come to Washington as a result of a conversation between the Kaiser and our Ambassador at Berlin. It was perceived that no Power was in so good a position to make overtures of this sort as the United States. The great European nations have harbored territorial designs on China, but this country is entirely free from such a suspicion. A proposal of Chinese neutrality from us stood a good chance of meeting a favorable reception, whereas if it were presented by any other nation it might be considered as hiding ulterior designs.

After the war news of the past week is boiled down, there remain but few facts of importance in relation to the contest for the control of the sea. It may be accepted that the damage to Russia's naval power has not been exaggerated. Her mistake in allowing her fleet to be surprised at Port Arthur was no greater than her failure to concentrate all her ships before the beginning of hostilities. The resulting destruction and disablement of her vessels is only a part of the price her navy will have to pay for this fundamental mistake in strategy. As it is, she has now only one small squadron of four ships which can take the offensive. This fleet really appears to be menacing the west coast of Japan. Its operations must be limited to two considerations: (1) the preservation of its base, Vladivostok; and (2) the impossibility of passing through the Korean Strait to reach Port Arthur without encountering a superior Japanese fleet. At present the Japanese would seem to have a three-fold duty, to bottle up the Vladivostok squadron, to cut off the several reinforcements now en route from Indian waters, and to keep the fleet at Port Arthur under constant surveillance. These tasks should neither severally nor jointly be beyond the powers of the Mikado's men-of-war, even though some of them may have received rather rough handling at Port Arthur. Until the Vladivostok squadron is located, the transportation of troops must be attended by very considerable uneasiness and call for the services of a very strong convoy. Upon this point the reader need only remember how Shafter's army was held at Tampa because of the merest rumors of a stray Spanish ship or two.

A striking coincidence, at least, is the outbreak of war in the Far East and the signing of a new treaty between France and Siam, which gives the French more favorable terms than they got by the convention of 1902. Details are lacking, but it may fairly be assumed that the "temporary" occupation of Chatanbun and other towns on the Bangkok side of the Cambodia line is to be indefinitely continued. Probably the French have also obtained exclusive railway concessions for the debatable land between the Menam and the Mekong. These were the chief points at issue in the negotiations, and the result of the new treaty is probably to shut Siam up to the valley of the Menam. The French are fond of the proverb, "Fish in troubled waters," and evidently they are applying to their own interests the *de te fabula*. It is a kind of fishing that interested Powers will not find incompatible with pious wishes that nobody fish at present in the dangerously troubled Chinese waters.

Two great countries, with representative institutions, have strikingly illustrated, during the past week, the fact that war swallows up the largest interests of political life. In England, a Parliamentary debate of the first importance has been going on. Upon it the life of the Ministry might depend. Yet only the most languid interest has been aroused even at home, while the dispatches to foreign newspapers have been all of war and rumors of war. Similarly in this country, the work of the Government, the transactions of Congress, have passed unnoticed, almost unrecorded. In such absorption in the single subject of war, we see the temptation of unscrupulous rulers hard beset in matters of domestic policy. It is the insidious temptation which Seward placed before Lincoln in 1861—only, of course, to have it quietly pushed aside—to "change the subject" before the country by getting up a foreign war.

To the vagaries of the Panama situation is added, by leakage from an Executive session of the Senate, the story of Minister Buchanan's scheme to "square" the Colombians. His plan of buying Colombian bonds at 5 cents on the dollar, and offering them at par as indemnity for the loss of Panama, savors rather of shifty finance than of diplomacy. Yet Mr. Buchanan evidently felt that he was charged with the duty of liquidating a transaction with a feeble but troublesome creditor. With a lawyer-like grasp of the conditions, he sees the chance of buying his creditor's depreciated paper in open market, and of thus absolving the debt for a mere per cent. of its face value. In the present instance, for example, he apparently meant to buy $10,000,000 of Colombian bonds at $500,000, and thus pay the Colombians the sum stipulated by the Hay-Herran Treaty. Certainly, that looked like an excellent settlement, and Secretary Hay, in rejecting the plan with some asperity, has shown the traditional inability of the "literary feller" to come to grips with affairs.

But this ridiculous project of bringing a sovereign State into the note market has its serious side also; for Mr. Buchanan's plan is virtually an admission that the President feels that we have wronged Colombia, and owe her

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something by way of *solatium*. It is not to be supposed that Minister Buchanan of his own motion proposed a payment of any kind to Colombia. He must have been under instructions to consider possible means of indemnity, and the discreditable plan which he actually presented is merely the measure of the man. The problem, in short, at the White House seems to be, how to force Colombia to accept something for a quitclaim. We would give her anything, even the $10,000,000 perhaps, if there were any way of doing it without putting us in the wrong. There is no such way; we might buy all the Colombian bonds and burn them in Culebra cut, and still no moral atonement would have been made for the overriding of Colombia's sovereignty. The United States owes Colombia apologies and adequate indemnity. The President feels this in his heart, or he would not be seeking indirect ways of paying money to Colombia. The method of reparation is for future determination. Obviously the Hague Tribunal exists to straighten out precisely such tangles. Direct negotiation might be better. In any case the President has here a case for riding straight. The fewer attorneys of the Buchanan type associated in the matter, the sooner the desired settlement will come.

The date for ratifying the Panama treaty has been finally fixed as February 23. The proceedings could be appropriately varied by the reading of Washington's Farewell Address. Senator Hoar is usually selected to regale the Senate with the lofty morality of that document, and this year he could intersperse extracts from his own speech pointing out how President Roosevelt held Colombia while Panama picked her pocket. Real impressiveness could be added to the roll-call by reciting Washington's exhortation to "observe good faith and justice towards all nations." And when ratification is at last complete —when lawless aggression combined with conspiracy finally insures to the covetous United States the thing that is its neighbor's—the Senate could add an almost religious solemnity to the occasion by chanting in unison these words of Washington: "It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and great nation to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence."

The Senate has just made a fine exhibition of itself in the debate attending the proposal to pay $200,000 to the ex-Queen of the Hawaiian Islands. The Committee on Pacific Islands had reported a bill for that purpose, which read as follows:

"Be it enacted, etc., That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to pay to Liliuokalani, formerly Queen of the Kingdom of Hawaii, in full satisfaction and discharge of all claim, legal and equitable, $200,000."

But the scrupulous and legal mind of Senator Platt of Connecticut scented danger. He did not object to the payment, but he dreaded the "admission." So he moved to strike out the words "in full satisfaction and discharge of all claim, legal and equitable." It was intolerable to acknowledge that the ex-Queen had a claim upon the United States for having simply dethroned her. So, said the astute Senator Platt, "we may just as well strike out those words and pay her the $200,000 without stating what we pay it for." Naturally, a moral Senate rose to this, and Mr. Platt's amendment was agreed to, and everybody looked virtuous. But a new difficulty straightway reared its head. To make an appropriation of $200,000 without reason stated seemed to Senator Spooner a queer way to do business. Senators must remember that it was not their own money they were giving away, and if they were unable or ashamed to say why they were voting $200,000 to the ex-Queen, it would be wiser to stick to precedent and vote down the bill. It was, in fact, defeated on Monday by a tie vote; but we presume some way will be found to appropriate the money for the wronged Queen. What Senators were evidently dreading was the creation of a precedent. If we are to pay everybody whom we injure or rob, in our glorious course of Imperialism, the Treasury will need replenishing. There is Colombia next. The President is willing to pay her, provided the act can be made to prove the perfect propriety of his "getting his clutches on the Isthmus," as he elegantly expresses it. The legal obstacles are obvious. Precedent does not exist for appropriations to quiet claims of which we deny the validity. But our Imperialist leaders, we know (for they have told us so), have the talent to meet every crisis as it arises; and we do not doubt that they will soon work out a highly moral formula for paying $10,000,000 to Colombia as a sort of consolation purse.

Chairman Foss of the House Naval Affairs Committee has, according to the press reports, "taken up with vigor the gauntlet thrown down by Senator Gorman in his announced policy of internal improvements in place of naval construction." The "vigor" seems to consist in Mr. Foss's declaration that "if we stopped [building] now we would [*sic*] be left behind the leading countries of the world." There is just about as much logic in this as in most of the navy boomers' arguments. Only the other day it was officially proved that we were now third in naval power among the nations, and were soon likely to be in second place. It would seem, therefore, as if other countries were being left behind, and not the United States. But there is never any ending to this ignoble competition. The big-navy men can always see a goal unattained before them, however many millions they may have squandered. For a time the cry was that we must at least be on a par with Austria and Brazil. Then, we were bound to overtake Germany, Russia, and Italy. Next, it will be England, that the Anglo-Saxons may dominate the world. Later, unless the common sense of the people calls a halt, we shall be told that we must be able to "lick" any two or three nations, etc. Mr. Foss's modest demand in these hard times for only 96 millions of dollars may be good policy, but we are inclined to think the House itself will prune this, at least so far as new construction is concerned. Whether it does or does not, Senator Gorman for once stands on what is not only a sound, but a civilized, high-minded, and essentially Democratic doctrine; Mr. Foss and Secretary Moody to the contrary notwithstanding.

The study of eminent rascality is now deeply engrossing the public mind. The conviction of Whitaker Wright was such a surprise to the average Britisher that he is not likely to get over talking about it for some time, and it has made a good many people ask if something of the same sort could not be done in this country. The general feeling has been that conditions were much more favorable to such a result in Great Britain than here; but the more the Wright episode is studied, the less this appears to be the case. Indeed, there was as strong a presumption in England that Wright could not be convicted in the criminal courts as there has been here that his American counterparts were beyond the law. The fact that the Attorney-General refused to direct prosecution against Wright is sufficient indication of the deep-seated feeling that the law could not touch him. The Solicitor-General actually asked, "Will any one get up and say that a man can be prosecuted for publishing a false balance sheet?" And it was announced that the Government intended to legislate to meet a case for which the criminal law made no provision. The London *Times* remarks that probably nothing more will be heard of the proposed legislation, and adds that it would be only seemly for the Government to repay fully to the private persons who instituted the prosecution, all the costs which they have incurred "in bringing to justice a culprit of a kind that, under our laws, fortune generally favors." In this particular case the British public's sense of justice had been too greatly outraged; it was quickly made clear that not even the greatest rascals are entirely immune.

The Wright verdict has made a good

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many Americans feel that what man has done man may do. We have produced as great rascals as he. He could teach certain of our promoters nothing in the way of balance sheets and prospectuses. They were as clever as he in charging up as assets things that never were on land or sea; in the gentle art of gulling they have never been equalled. And they were, and still are, his equals in social standing. For months we have been listening to official accounts of how they did things. We have asked how it was possible that such men could be such cheats, and how the people whom they bled like sheep in a slaughter house could be such fools. But it has not seriously occurred to any one to make an attempt to put them down where they deserve to be. We show no such favors to rascals of lesser degree: short work is made of the green-goods man when caught; the promoter of a bogus Western mine is promptly jailed when sufficient evidence is produced; the man who lives by sponging on hotels and storekeepers is very apt to get his deserts. At the moment, public sentiment is hot against the eminent rascals. In legislative circles there is even talk of investigations. But unless the blow is struck while the iron is hot, it will not be struck at all.

It is inspiring to see a community so terribly afflicted as Baltimore rising up and asserting its ability to take care of itself. Offers of outside aid have been declined, but in no spirit of mere bravado, as the Mayor announces that the city will not hesitate to ask assistance later if necessary. Like Chicago and Boston, Baltimore has entered immediately, and with splendid courage, upon the task of building a better city. Of course, nothing can offset the fact that some $125,000,000 of wealth has been destroyed; the effects of such a loss must necessarily be gradually spread over the whole community. But man does not live by bread alone. Such calamities as the Baltimore fire are not to be welcomed, but it is quite possible that they have a high usefulness in testing the mettle of a people.

President Gompers, on the eve of his departure for Porto Rico to organize locals of the American Federation of Labor, gave us a new commandment. Organized labor, he said, had established the ethical proposition, "Thou shalt not take another man's job." It is a great pity that organized labor has not established still another proposition, namely, "Thou shalt not break another man's head." But, on second thought, such a commandment may be unnecessary; for have we not already been told to do no murder? It may be a good thing for organized labor to add an eleventh commandment to the Decalogue, but the wisdom of giving it preëminence over the sixth is to be doubted. Mr. Gompers's new proposition is, in fact, open to criticism on a number of grounds. What, in an ethical sense, is "another man's job"? Such a question does not have to be asked regarding the sixth and subsequent commandments. The fatal defect of the new labor commandment is that every exercise of it requires an act of mental discrimination. The determining of what is "another man's job" is purely an act of private judgment. We have no divine revelation to guide us in this matter. We have, it is true, the dictum of the labor leaders that "another man's job" means the job of one who belongs to a labor union, but no one of these leaders has yet given evidence of speaking with authority. The "scab," therefore, feels that he has as much right to exercise private judgment as the unionist, and by virtue thereof to accept any job that is offered him.

Mr. Booker Washington, speaking in this city on Friday evening, demolished in a single sentence the theory advanced by the Governor of Mississippi that education makes criminals of the negro. "Not a single graduate of Hampton or Tuskegee," he said, "can be found to-day in any jail or penitentiary." Could as much be said for Harvard or Yale? He added that 90 per cent. of the colored persons in prison to-day are without knowledge of trades, and that 61 per cent. are illiterate. While it was undoubtedly necessary to put on record an elaborate reply to Major Vardaman's demagogy, it is most gratifying to note that the better sentiment of the South, both in and out of the press, is very far from taking any stock in his absurd utterances or sharing his belief that there is no difference between Booker Washington and the negro boy who blacks the Major's boots, when it comes to the ballot. The best men of the South, in and out of its universities, regret such prejudiced utterances as reflections upon their sections of the country. For instance, the Richmond (Va.) *News-Leader* declares that "Gov. Vardaman's declarations are much more sensational than just or sensible," and adds: "Mistaking coincidences for cause and effect is an old and familiar fault of shallow ignorance." The Richmond *Times-Dispatch*, citing the familiar quotation that "ignorance is a remedy for nothing," characterizes Vardaman's doctrine "as utterly illogical, untenable, harsh, and cruel."

They have a high idea of the dignity of labor in South Africa. A correspondent of the London *Times* recalls the fact that, after emancipation, the negroes of Barbadoes came under the system of compulsory labor "through natural laws," thereby escaping the moral degeneracy of the negroes in Jamaica. Therefore, a scheme should be devised for the compulsory labor of those natives of South Africa who may be in no need of working for a subsistence. "Regular work and being obliged to work is a divine law to maintain at least a decent standard of morals," is the way the case is summed up. Compulsory work should be the rule wherever there is any idleness, whether in South Africa or Pall Mall, continues the expounder of this heroic doctrine. This is quite logical, and has come naturally in the fulness of time. In the nineteenth century the missionary was of inestimable service to the trader. He went in advance to the dark places of the earth, and in persuasive ways forced the heathen to stop raging, to put on clothes, and occasionally to do a little work. Then stepped in the trader and preempted their territory. But the missionary, after all, wasted a good deal of time and effort by putting the cart before the horse. A modern captain of industry is worth a hundred sermonizers. He does not confound cause and effect. He does not preach "Be civilized and work," but "Work and be civilized." It should be remembered, however, that the trader's idea of civilization is not exactly the same as the missionary's.

That John Morley's skilfully worded resolution of no confidence should be voted down was inevitable. It took the form of an amendment to the King's speech, and declared that return to protective duties would be injurious. It served very well to expose the vacillation of the Government on the fiscal issue. The final majority of 51, less than half the normal majority, was perfunctory. The Ministry for several days had been explaining that Mr. Balfour's proposed retaliatory schedules had nothing to do with protective duties; Mr. Chamberlain, exceptionally, observed a wise passiveness. Indeed, everything was done to give color to that sophism of the London *Times* which asserts that the fiscal plan is not yet in the Parliamentary stage. Under these circumstances, the majority must be regarded simply as a formal and partisan endorsement of Mr. Balfour. Many were willing to vote approval of the Government in general terms who would as certainly vote the Government down if the Chamberlain plan should come up in a specific form. The defection of the Irish Nationalists was the significant feature of the division. Mr. John Redmond explained that the Irish members had no attitude towards the fiscal question, but welcomed the chance to support a vote of no confidence in the Government. This action was foreshadowed in Mr. Redmond's notable speech of February 3, in which he said, "The colonial question is subservient to the Irish question."

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THE REAL ISSUES OF THE WAR.

To say that Russia is fighting merely for ice-free ports on the Pacific, and Japan for an outlet in Korea, would be to make a superficial analysis of a much greater contest. The fight is between Eastern and Western civilization—a strife that is traceable to the very beginnings of recorded history. If Japan wins, the East will have the chance to reassert itself and to develop along national lines. If Russia conquers, the East generally will sink to the position of vassal and customer of the West. The alternative is admitted even by those who perceive it obscurely. Secretary Hay's circular note in behalf of China's "administrative entity" indicates the fear lest Europe, headed by Russia, may absorb China; the *Spectator's* gloomy vaticinations against a domineering Japan are caused by the dread that the East will come to self-consciousness and throw off the European yoke.

Considered from this point of view, the present war is likely to be a turning point in history. Many times before has the immemorial fight between the East and the West reached such a climax, and to-day the Japanese may feel that they are associated with the great defenders of history. They fight to-day as the Greeks fought the Persians, the Franks the Moors, the Magyars the Turks. Since the Turks were stopped at the Danube, the larger history of the world has written the slow conquest of the East by the West. The process has known no stay. It has been subject to no such checks as for a thousand years earlier the great invasions from the East had invariably met. But the aggression of Europe was all the more formidable that it was largely peaceful. Manchester prints and Brummagem ware, articles made in Germany, and American cottons have been much better battle-cries than "The Koran or the sword." And gradually most of Asia has come to live subject to the will of Europe and on condition of buying European goods. All of Asia to-day, except China and Japan, is pretty definitely marked out for ultimate occupation by some European Power. If Japan is humiliated and China partitioned, the process will be completed; the East as a political entity will have been destroyed, the East as a peculiar civilization will have been profoundly impaired.

People with goods to sell and superficial observers generally would welcome this obscuration of the East. To them it would mean the final triumph of our commercialized civilization. Others more altruistically see a providential movement redeeming pagans to Christianity. Nobody seems to regret the probable disappearance of a highly interesting life, of a society very humanely organized, with peculiar aptitudes for the graces of life and for beautiful handicraft. In these essential matters, as the Japanese scholar Okakura has recently said, the East is one against the West. It presents great uniformity and an established social order against the individualism of the West; with this goes a certain fatalism and submissiveness which deprives the universal lot of poverty of its sting, and a real community of ideas which transcends superficial systems of caste and makes a genuine social democracy. Finally, the tradition of leisurely and beautiful craftsmanship, which the West has forgotten, places the reward of labor where it belongs, in the interest of the work itself. These are advantages not to be despised, and only the very unimaginative will marvel at the "preference which many Orientals display, and which most feel at heart, for their own life over the life of Europe."

Of course, the prophets of militant commercialism will condemn this civilization out of hand as inferior, and will entertain a proper contempt for a defence of the East that includes its porcelains and wood carvings. To certain minds, and those minds rule to-day, the destiny of all inferior races is to buy the inferior products of superior races. With such we have no argument, nor do we hope to persuade them that trade does not necessarily imply sovereignty over the customer. We prefer rather to appeal to philosophic observers like Mr. Meredith Townsend, who, in his stimulating book, 'Asia and Europe,' seriously questions if the undoubted blessings of "peace and material prosperity" in British India have not been accompanied by overbalancing evils. He writes:

> "It is no time yet for conclusions, for the work of conquest has but just ended, and that of sowing seed has but just begun; but that decay of varieties of energy, that torpor of the higher intellectual life, that pause in the application of art knowledge, from architecture down to metal work and pottery, which have been synchronous with our rule in India—these are to the philosophic observer melancholy symptoms."

No one can doubt that, with the entire East in vassalage, the world would be distinctly less interesting and the diversity of civilization unhappily narrowed, and it is hard to see any sufficient compensation in the universal dominion of the bagmen of the West. And if this is the feeling of impartial spirits in the West, what must be the emotion of the single Oriental Power that has arrived at national self-consciousness—Japan? Avowedly or not, she is fighting the battle of Asia, and her war cry is "Asia for the Asiatics." A great sympathy cannot but go out to her, for she is setting her new-found strength against a movement with the weight of centuries behind it. Let no one suppose that with Western battleships she has adopted the Western soul. The mournful *Spectator* is right: if Asiatics are to be feared *quâ* Asiatics, Japan is to be feared. But we choose rather to believe that such enterprise and daring are not associated with a congenital unfitness to further the progress of the world. We see in the advance of Japan great hope for the regeneration of China along Asiatic lines, and we are convinced that this would be far more in the interests of civilization than the creation of so many colonies in the present spheres of influence.

MR. HANNA'S PUBLIC CAREER.

It is easy to understand why the late Senator Hanna was so much esteemed personally. A very approachable and affable man, he made friends easily and bound to him multitudes in different walks of life. He had a great stock of native kindliness. In his rise to large wealth he did not lay aside the manners of a man of the people. As an employer he appears to have won, and deserved to win, the confidence and even affection of his men in an unusual degree. He rejoiced in his sobriquet of "Uncle Mark." And if one asks why men of affairs had so genuine a respect for his ability, the answer is that he had a mind at once keen in its perceptions and comprehensive in its grasp. Such results as he achieved come only by due cause. There can be no doubt that Senator Hanna was a man of unusual and versatile capacity. No scandals, further, haunted his private life.

Passing by, however, all those aspects of the man which may fairly be called private and inviolate, it is his public career that challenges comment at this hour. Of what type was he as a political leader? What counsel does his example speak to young men ambitious to do some service to the State? His total influence upon party politics, upon the morals of the political world, upon the nation at large—was it good or bad? Such are the questions to which the passing of Senator Hanna from the scene presses for an honest answer.

We can see pretty clearly now, what will be perfectly distinct to the acute historian in the future, that Mr. Hanna was the full flower of the spirit of commercialism in politics. He was, in this, but the child of his epoch. That was the reason of his success. He best embodied the tendency of the years in which he was militant. It was in Senator Hanna that the grosser and more repulsive policies of his own party beheld themselves as in a mirror. What was everywhere latent, he caught up and flashed forth. The apologies of others became his defiances; what they deprecated, even while profiting by, he gloried in. To invest money in politics as in a mine or railroad, and to look as confidently for the pecuniary return; to appeal for votes on the basis of sheer material advantage; to cry up prosperity as the be-all and end-all of government; to vulgarize politics by making its watchwords the cries of the market and the slang of the gambler; to make of the electoral struggles of a free people an exciting game with huge and

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glittering money stakes—in a word, to put mercantile methods in the place of forensic, and to hold the best title to office to be the fact that it has been bought and paid for—this was the great political distinction of Mr. Hanna.

He set about the first election of President McKinley in the spirit, and with many of the devices, of a financier planning a vast combination. In fact, there was an almost ludicrous resemblance between his campaign for the nomination of Mr. McKinley and a skilful reorganization of a bankrupt railway. Mr. Hanna took up a Congressman whose private fortunes were shattered and whose political prestige was broken. That looked like most unpromising material out of which to create a Governor and, later, a President. But Mr. Hanna saw the financial possibilities of the situation. A political reaction was upon the country. After years of depression a promise that the people were to be fed and filled and warmed was sure to be fetching. Mr. Hanna openly dangled that bribe in the nation's face. He set in motion, certainly in 1895, probably as early as 1894, an elaborate and heavily endowed organization to bring Mr. McKinley to the front. Just who furnished the funds, and in what sums, will not be known until Mr. Hanna's private records leap to light, if they ever do; but it was common gossip in advance that such and such men were to have this office and the other for subscriptions received. It is to be said for Mr. McKinley that he honored every obligation of that sort. Financial good faith was kept. So was political. Not one of Mr. Hanna's "original McKinley men" went unrewarded, let clergymen and college professors protest against them as scandalous ill livers if they choose. The whole ante-convention campaign was tinged with the merchandising spirit, and afterwards every note was met as it fell due.

Things fell out luckily for Mr. Hanna after McKinley and Bryan were fairly in the field in 1896. The contest turned into an assault upon the nation's financial credit. The result was to put vast sums at Chairman Hanna's disposal. This seemed necessary at the time, and the sound principle undoubtedly triumphed; but it was at the cost of a frightful extension of commercialism in politics. For this, Mr. Hanna was too much responsible. We have heard men familiar with his methods say that his plan was to block out the contested States into small districts, and coolly figure out how much money it would take to make each safe. All this was bad enough at the time, but the doctrine of no peril without its price, no vote that could not be had for cash in hand, secured a fatal hold and was applied disastrously for years. It rose to its final pitch of vulgar effrontery in the Ohio campaign of last year, which resulted in an attempt to baptize the Republican party anew in the faith of the almighty dollar.

We wish to be entirely fair. Prosperity, rightly conceived and worthily striven for, is a national blessing. We do not doubt that Senator Hanna really wished to see everybody busy and contented. That went with his kindness of heart, as did also, we presume, the efforts to compose labor troubles to which he gave so much time and energy. But it was his misfortune to seem to make meat more than life. He identified his name with lavish and wasteful policies. Politico-financial promoters swarmed about him, as did also the unscrupulous politicians of whom he made use, and by whom he thought it a point of honor to stand in all their detected knaveries. Thus he exactly typified the baser tendencies of his party and his day. We had loud praises from him of the full dinner-pail and the swollen bank account, with money enough in the Treasury for every schemer; but when did he ever speak an echoing word for human liberty, or show that national honor was dearer to him than the jingling of the guinea, or separate himself from the category of those who, in Puritan phrase, "make Religion as twelve and the World as thirteen"? Mr. Hanna was a master of legions of "negro delegates," but real sympathy with the struggles of black men to rise he never betrayed in public. Asked last summer what was the intent of the Ohio plank about negro suffrage in the South, he replied that he was against having the party really take up that issue, and added, in the most matter-of-fact way, "There are 25,000 negroes in Ohio whose votes we want."

Senator Hanna rose as high as such a man could go in this country. It is unavailing for his friends to speak of what might have been had he lived—of disappointed ambitions. Verily, he had his reward. His support by the men who are in politics for the money they can make, and by the grand army of corrupt politicians, was the real and final measure of his success. The judgment of the people is just, in the long run; and it had already given Mr. Hanna his true place. A skilled political manager, yes; but a public man upon whom Americans would delight to bestow their highest honors? Never.

PROMOTION FOR DISTINGUISHED SERVICE.

The new General Staff of the army has prepared a bill to provide rewards for officers of distinguished service, which was duly transmitted to Congress by Secretary Root before his retirement from office. It is an outgrowth of the scandals attending the unwarranted advancement of Gens. Wood, Grant, and Funston, and of the ill-feeling created by the promotion to brigadier-generals of competent but subordinate officers, like Capts. A. L. Mills and J. Franklin Bell, as well as Majors T. H. Bliss and W. A. Kobbé. In most of these cases the excuse for conferring generalcies has been the inability of the President to do anything else. As the law now stands, he can in no way reward an inferior officer of great merit except by making him a brigadier-general—in most cases a reward entirely too great for the service rendered.

In his memorandum of transmittal, Mr. Root dwelt upon this situation, and added: "One very serious evil resulting from the inability of the President to properly reward distinguished service is the lack of incentive to such service which ought to be furnished by suitable rewards." He further endorsed the General Staff's bill by pointing out that the expense involved is but slight compared to the benefit which, in his opinion, will be derived from it, and by stating that it will in no way interfere with or change the present organization of the army. He might well have gone further, and characterized the measure as "a bill to prevent the President from abusing the appointing power so far as relates to the army." This is its real purpose. If our Presidents are to excuse themselves for making generals of doctors and of personal friends, on the ground that there is no other way of rewarding them, the sooner this apology is done away with the better it will be for army and public.

The General Staff evidently believes in limiting the power of the President as much as possible. Its bill, in brief, provides that there shall be a "distinguished-service list," composed of not more than five colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, eighteen majors, ten captains, and five first lieutenants. Any and all of these offices the President may fill when, in his judgment, there are officers who merit special advancement, but only on the "specific recommendation of a board, as near permanent as may be, of five general officers on the active list of the army, which board shall be appointed by the President and sworn in every case to make the recommendation, if at all, without partiality and exclusively on the merit of the officer's services as shown by official records." In other words, for the untrained and easily influenced opinion of the President and the Secretary of War, there is to be substituted the sober judgment of an officer's superiors of sufficiently high rank to be themselves beyond the influence of personal considerations, and who are sworn to put aside all political, social, or personal influences in favor of a candidate for the distinguished-service list. The officers thus specially advanced are to retain their old places and commissions, and will be promoted on the ordinary list without reference to their places on the distinguished list. Officers selected for reward will

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receive only one higher grade, save in cases of exceptional achievements.

Had this bill been passed prior to 1898, it would not, of course, have prevented the appointment of a Funston and Grant to the regular army, but it would in all probability have saved the country from the Wood scandal. So far as the promotion of Capt. Albert L. Mills is concerned, that officer would undoubtedly be sufficiently rewarded if he were given the rank of lieutenant-colonel upon the distinguished-service list. This commission would give him the following advantages: (1) The right to append to his signature the words, "lieutenant-colonel, distinguished-service"; (2) the pay and allowances of a lieutenant-colonel of cavalry; and (3) all the other rights, privileges, qualifications, and emoluments of the grade save the right to command troops under his distinguished-service commission. But if specially so assigned by the President, the distinguished-service officer could have the command of troops suitable to his advanced rank just as if he were regularly commissioned. Surely, this should be distinction enough for an officer whose undoubtedly gallantry at Santiago was by no means exceptional. It would certainly right the wrong done him in the matter of unfair promotion in the past, and in any foreign service it would make of an officer thus favored a man of mark among his comrades throughout his life.

There is every indication that this bill will have the unanimous support of the army, if only for the reason that the proposed distinguished-service list can do no officer any harm. Never has the army been so roused as by the rewards given to Wood and his fellow "captain-generals," and this not merely because some unworthy men have been made generals, but because the process has done clear injustice to hundreds of more capable and deserving officers. Distinguished officers will be promoted in regular order under their permanent commissions, and not at the expense of their classmates or of men who were twenty years in service before they were done with knee breeches. When such officers retire from active service, or are promoted to a grade equalling that specially conferred upon them, their places on the distinguished-service list will be vacated —to be filled if there are worthy officers awaiting recognition, or, if this be not the case, to remain unfilled until such time as men have a chance to win honors. That they would at once become the greatest prizes in army life next to the medal of honor, even Congress should see. The measure before it should have prompt approval.

CHAMBERLAIN VS. CHAMBERLAIN.

Mr. Chamberlain's self-esteem is probably proof against the Cobden Club's "Reply" to his tariff speeches. This work asserts that the speeches are open to objection in every part and almost every paragraph, and that the frequent historical references are wholly untrustworthy—that when authorities such as Adam Smith, Cobden, Bright, and Gladstone are quoted, or referred to, opinions the very opposite of what they held are attributed to them. The very title of the work, 'Fact vs. Fiction,' shows what sort of disputant the committee consider Mr. Chamberlain. If the committee had desired to put an apt phrase across the title-page of their work, they would certainly have chosen, "Out of thine own mouth will I judge thee," for that is what, in very large measure, they have done. When they have not discredited him out of his own mouth, they have done so out of the mouths of persons whom he has cited in defence of his position.

There is, in fact, no one against whom the parallel column can be used with such deadly effect as Mr. Chamberlain. Here on the one side are two statements from a Birmingham speech of 1903, and on the other an extract from a speech delivered in 1885, when times were hard and a good many persons were clamoring for protection, under the guise of "fair trade" and "reciprocity":

1903.	1885.
"It is a popular delusion that, during the time of Protection, England was declining, until it had reached a state of unexampled misery and destitution." "Is it true that at the time when Free Trade was introduced and the Corn Laws were repealed, we were in a state of destitution and misery and starvation? Is it true that, under the Protection which prevailed before that, this country was going down in the scale of nations or losing its prosperity and losing its trade? No, absolutely *no*. The exact reverse was the case."	"I wonder whether in this vast audience there are any people who have any conception of the state of things which existed forty or fifty years ago, *i. e.*, between 1835 and 1845. At that time the whole of the laborers in the agricultural districts were on the verge of starvation. The Poor Rates were in some districts 20s. in the pound. At the time of which I am speaking the large towns were described by eyewitnesses as bearing the appearance of beleaguered cities, so dreadful were the destitution and the misery which prevailed in them. People walked the streets like gaunt shadows, and not like human beings. There were bread riots in every town. There were rick burnings on all the countrysides. We were on the verge of a revolution when the Corn Laws were abolished."

The man who now says that England was the reverse of destitute in the days of protection, made still another speech in 1885. In this he referred to "those times when Protection starved the poor." He also quoted some verses of the Corn-Law Rhymer to show how horrible were the sufferings of the people, and then said: "That is not a retrospect which I think would be favorable to any party or any statesman who should have the audacity to propose that we should go back to those times." That is what most persons would think; and yet a statesman with sufficient audacity to propose such a movement has actually come to the front, and his name is Joseph Chamberlain.

Mr. Chamberlain's method of quoting Cobden has led the committee to assert that "never, we believe, in the history of political controversy has a statesman of repute made statements so untrue and so reckless!" But perhaps the most astonishing bit of audacity with which Mr. Chamberlain has surprised the world is his Glasgow statement that if Adam Smith were alive, he would undoubtedly be heart and soul for imperial federation and preferential trade with the colonies. The delightful absurdity of this is shown by a number of citations from the 'Wealth of Nations,' ending with this: "Britain should by all means be made a free port, and there should be no interruptions to foreign trade." Colonial monopoly was odious to Smith; for a little enhancement of price, he says, "the home producers have been burdened with the whole expense of maintaining and defending that empire."

In 1903 Mr. Chamberlain said that in 1846 (the year of the Corn Law repeal) the price of wheat was 54s. 8d. per quarter, and that for ten years after 1846 the average price was 55s. 4d.—or 8d. higher than during the whole year 1846. But he did not point out that, though the repeal was carried in 1846, it did not go into effect until 1849, when the price fell from 50s. 6d. to 44s. 3d., touching 38s. 6d. in 1851. Nor did he state that his ten-year period included the years 1854 to 1856, when, owing to the stoppage of Russian wheat exports on account of the Crimean war, the price rose to famine figures—namely, to 73s. per quarter. Another piece of Chamberlain audacity is the assertion that England's foreign trade prospered greatly under a system of protection. In 1815 the war with France came to an end; in 1842 Sir Robert Peel made his first great effort towards free trade by repealing and reducing a large number of import duties. In the period 1816-20 the exports averaged £40,-315,000; in 1831-45, £40,500,000; in 1836-42, £50,011,000; in 1843-48, £56,-742,000; in 1849-53, £75,245,000; in 1857-59, £98,900,000; and in 1860-64, £132,400,000.

But the arrested development of the British export of manufactures in the last thirty years is what most worries Mr. Chamberlain. The Cobden Club, however, cruelly recalls that in 1881 he was President of the Board of Trade, and that he then talked very differently on this point. It was contended in 1881 that trade was falling off, and that the average exports for 1876-80 were 7 per cent. smaller than those for 1871-75. But Mr. Chamberlain objected to this argument, and said that the reduction was in value only, as there had been a fall in prices "averaging not less than 20 per cent.; the real value of our trade had increased in the interval about 14 per cent." And on top of all this, only last year, Mr. Chamberlain's colleague, Mr. Gerald Balfour, President of the

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Board of Trade, in answer to a question in the House of Commons, produced figures showing that the value of British exports for 1902, if based on the prices of 1873, would have been £416,000,000, instead of the £278,000,000 actually reported—that is, an increase over 1873 of 153 per cent., in place of a paltry 23 per cent. What shall be said of a man who juggles facts and figures in a way like this, and who says to-day that "retaliation" is a necessity, in spite of his powerful denunciation of such a policy in 1881?

THE PRESENT SIGNIFICANCE OF KANT.

Immanuel Kant the Königsberg philosopher, and the most influential thinker in the history of German thought, was born April 22, 1724, and died February 12, 1804. The hundred years that have passed since his death have been marked by many very great advances both in science and in the other fields of human activity in which he took especial interest, but Kant still remains a thinker of contemporary interest and of living influence. A prominent German philosophical periodical, the *Kantstudien*, is to-day devoted not only to the interpretation of his thought, but to the discussion of its bearings upon contemporary problems. Pope Leo, in one of his later encyclicals, deplored the wide influence that the Kantian philosophy has been recently exerting upon the teachings of a notable school of philosophers which has sprung up within the Catholic Church. And this particular form of Neo-Kantianism which Leo deplored has flourished, in certain Catholic and clerical circles, in the very country where an uninitiated person might least have expected to find such a movement—namely, in France. In England and in this country nobody seriously studies philosophy without taking careful account of Kant. Courses more or less exclusively devoted to the exposition and criticism of his views are an indispensable feature in a well-developed modern university curriculum. And both within and outside of academic circles the interest in Kant's thought is shared both by theologically disposed students, and by those who are, on the contrary, mainly interested in the examination of the philosophical bases of science. For Kant is a thinker who has his word to say both to the skeptic and to the believer; both to the constructive idealist, and to the empiricist; both to the man who wants to build "beyond Kant," and to the critical doubter who, despairing of the success of cloud-piercing systems, soberly desires to "return to Kant." Whoever refutes Kant, only stimulates his readers to new studies of the original text; whoever condemns Kant, only shows thereby how necessary it still is to take account of him; whoever, as disciple, "returns to Kant," is obliged all the more to interpret the master in the light of modern problems; and whoever attempts to "build beyond Kant," must nevertheless attempt to expound afresh what Kant meant.

In consequence, Kant means a great deal to the thought of the present time, even when this thought seems farthest removed from his formulas. Here is no place to set forth Kant's doctrines in any technical way; but it is worth while to review, very briefly, two of the principal reasons why Kant still keeps so living an influence, and why it is that the coming century of philosophy, like the past, is likely to be very frequently busy with the task of defining its relations to his teachings.

Kant's influence, then, in the first place is that of a very winning and wholesome personality. The world justly admires the man who in difficult tasks keeps his head. Kant never lost his self-possession in presence of the most baffling problems. The world wisely prizes the man who can be mercilessly critical, both of himself and of current dogma, and of the individual caprices of his fellow-men, and who nevertheless is never flippant, never cynical, and always humane. Kant accomplished this difficult union of humanity with critical acumen, and did so with a serenity of temper, a freedom from bias, and a sanity of judgment which in such a union are almost without a parallel. The world honorably pays tribute to unquestionable personal virtues. And of Kant's faithfulness to his own high ideals, of his moral health and devotedness, there can be no doubt. His worst personal faults seem to have been a certain narrowness of emotional experience, a certain lack of sympathy with some of the more romantic aspects of life, and a certain pedantry. These faults, such as they were, were incidents of his frail physical constitution, of the hard-won and unvarying regimen whereby he was able so long to retain his physical hold on life, of his provincial education, of the fact that he never travelled far from his birthplace, and of the conditions of his academic training and career. But no man ever made more than Kant did of such resources as our philosopher's physical weakness and narrow range of personal experience still left open to him. If he could not understand some of the more romantic aspects of life, he was nevertheless sensitive to the influence of Rousseau, and profited greatly thereby. If his rigorism as an ethical teacher often seemed to make him relatively indifferent to the significance of even the noblest sentiment as a practical guide to action, yet his mind was open, so far as keen vision, kindly personal intercourse with other men, and wide reading, could make it, to the effort to appreciate the most various types of mankind and the most wayward forms of human wilfulness. If he was no traveller, yet he was widely read in the literature of travel, and was a loving and tolerant student of the varieties of human nature as they were exhibited by different peoples. His correspondence, as it has lately been reëdited, now shows us, as we never knew before, how various were the sorts of men who appealed to him for sympathy or for guidance, and how much they confided in his humane spirit. As to his pedantry, that was illuminated in his case by a certain delightful humor, which appears little, to be sure, in his best-known and strictly technical works, but which was a prominent feature in certain of his courses of lectures, and a constant resource in his social intercourse.

He stands before us as a lifelong invalid who still never wearies by complaints; a keen critic of human nature who yet is never unkindly; a rigorist in ethics whom people meanwhile loved for his geniality of nature; a man trained in pedantry whose ideas are nevertheless far richer than are the forms in which they are expressed; a great thinker who, for all that, prized nothing so much as his daily duties; a man of narrow experience whose wealth of insight constantly surprised his contemporaries. Although his experience of the fine arts was limited to what his own native city could show him, his theory of the beautiful is the most influential, as it appears to be in many respects the sanest, of all the distinctly philosophical theories of modern æsthetics. Although his philosophical teachings appear at first sight so negative, yet one of his principal interests lay in attempting to give a sound foundation and a definite office in life to religious faith; and his influence has been nowhere more felt than in the recent developments of the philosophy of religion. Theologians and skeptics, students of science and idealists, thus join in finding him a guide.

The manysidedness and the remarkable balance and dignity of Kant's personality constitute one ground for the permanence and the strength of his influence. A second ground, and, of course, a still more important one, lies in his doctrine. This doctrine, namely, unites such various motives, allies itself with such different historical tendencies and influences, and bears upon so many types of modern problems that it stands, so to speak, at the great meeting-place, or at the crossroads, of recent speculation, so that, whatever one's personal decision may be regarding the problems at issue, and whatever the road that one travels, one is sure to be reminded that these problems were Kant's, and that this road leads one through, or at least close to, his system of doctrine.

Surveyed in its connections, this doctrine involves three essential theses: First, the world as it is in itself is unknowable; and only the realm of human experience is the just object of human theoretical science, question, and research. Secondly, every lawful and orderly aspect of human experience is due to the working of our own understanding, so that, apart from our intelligent interpretation of experience, sense shows us only chaos, while what we get out of our study of nature exhibits to us only those types of law which our own understanding has—not capriciously, indeed, but of its own necessity—first thought into nature. Thirdly, our "pure thought," our reason proper, can reveal to us no theoretical demonstrable absolute verities about the nature of things, but can only show us, on the one hand, what our moral duty is, and, on the other hand what, as rational beings, we are bound practically to assume as true, not as a matter of knowledge, but as faith. Thus, as Kant holds, the limits of possible human knowledge, and the sphere of necessary and rational faith, are marked out, justified, and rendered unmistakable.

Our concern here is not with the truth, but with the historical significance, of these philosophical definitions and theses. Their influence has been, as a stimulus, as a challenge to critics and to opponents, enormous. As a defence of the essential rationality of certain admittedly indemonstrable faiths, Kant's theory has become a bulwark of defence to very various defenders of modern forms of religious belief and practice against the assaults of the opponents of all faith. As a criticism of the

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limits of human knowledge, his work is the inexhaustible source of new attempts to define the scope to which our human insight is limited. As an analysis of the part which our intellectual processes play in defining our whole conception of phenomenal nature, as an investigation of the dependence of all our knowledge of what we take to be the external world upon the constitution of our own intelligence, Kant's theory at once excites permanent admiration for its ingenuity, and provokes us to constantly renewed analyses of the logic of experience.

The influence of such opinions and of the inquiries which they have provoked has also extended, however, far beyond the range of technical philosophy, and still extends. Such methods of study inspire freedom of opinion, keenness of critical self-examination, an effort to unite conflicting tendencies by higher syntheses, a disposition to be just to various sides of human nature, a union of skepticism with reverence; and these tendencies, in our time, have received application in many regions of activity which seem remote enough from philosophy. Many profit by the spirit of Kant who know little or nothing of his letter. His doctrine, as he stated it, will have henceforth few literal disciples; but whenever and wherever the lovers of their kind are interested in the great task of teaching man how to become, in a conscious and rational sense, without anarchy and yet without fear, the spiritual master of his own world, the memory of Kant will be honored, his guidance will be felt, and his personality will inspire.

GREECE REVISITED.

ATHENS, January 15, 1904.

Returning to Greece after an absence of twenty years one finds many changes. To begin with, the place of landing is different. Twenty years ago there was no Peloponnesian railway, and all travellers from Europe came by sea to the Peiræus. Now almost everybody lands at Patras, where passengers for Athens take the train. By this change the traveller both gains and loses. Some time is saved, which may or may not be important; but the trip round the Peloponnesus by sea and the entrance into the harbor at Peiræus are well worth the extra day's travel. On the other hand, the railway from Patras to Athens offers some of the most beautiful scenery in the world. From Patras to Corinth the road lies along the southern shore of the Gulf of Corinth, and across the blue water one sees clearly the sharply outlined mountains of Ætolia, Acarnania, Locris, Phocis, and Bœotia, among which Parnassus and Cithæron are especially prominent. Soon after passing Corinth, the train crosses the ship-canal that cuts the Isthmus, and skirts the shore of the Saronic Gulf, affording beautiful views of the Peloponnesian mountains and the islands of Salamis and Ægina. The aspect of the Gulf is that of a mountain lake; but no mountains outside of Greece are so sharply outlined against so blue a sky or so beautiful in their violet purple color. Upon closer acquaintance with the Greek mountains, one finds them for the most part bare and gray; but when seen from even a moderate distance they take on a violet hue quite unlike the color of the mountains of other countries.

Upon reaching Athens, one finds one's self in an outlying part of the city near the ancient Colonus, where Sophocles was born; a district which twenty years ago lay quite outside the life of the city. There the stranger is at once surrounded by a horde of screaming and pushing hotel agents and cabmen, through whose midst he has to struggle, unless he resigns himself and his belongings at once to the tender mercies of some one of their number. This ordeal is, if anything, even more trying than the struggle with the boatmen who transfer the passengers from the steamer to the quay at the Peiræus. But the nature of the ordeal is the same. The cabmen are the brothers of the boatmen, merely transferred to dry land.

The city of Athens itself has grown in twenty years to something like twice its former size, and general improvement has kept pace with growth. It is more European than it used to be, and the number of fine buildings has increased greatly. The streets, though still very dusty in summer and muddy after rain, are cleaner than they once were, and there is a greater appearance of thrift, or perhaps one should say a less general aspect of shiftlessness. In the streets of the capital the national costume is far less often seen than in earlier times, and even in the country one sees European clothing much more frequently than in former days. It is said that the increase in the population of Athens is due less to an influx of people from the country than to the increasing number of Greeks from Egypt and other regions who have chosen Athens as their place of abode. At any rate, the villages seem little less populous than formerly, in spite of the comparatively large number of emigrants to America in recent years.

There is a marked difference in the language spoken in the streets. Evidently the teaching of the schools is affecting the speech of the people. Now, as formerly, the spoken language differs materially from the semi-classic written dialect, but even in the spoken language ancient forms are becoming established. The genitive case, which was little used as a separate form, except in pronouns, is now often heard in the mouths of simple folk, and even the dative case occasionally appears. So, too, some ancient verb forms are more commonly employed. Whether the result will be a real improvement or the reverse, remains to be seen. For the present it looks as if the development or deterioration of Greek into an analytic language were arrested. Naturally enough the Greeks look back with veneration and longing to the classic period of Hellenic greatness, and the desire of many among them to restore the ancient language, or, at least, to approximate to it, is easily understood. So far as the exclusion of Turkish and other foreign words is concerned, the attempt to purify the language is neither hopeless nor unjustified, but it is doubtful if success can or should attend the efforts of those who are trying to restore the forms or syntax of the ancient speech.

The language question is not always regarded as a matter merely for calm academic discussion. A few months ago the "Oresteia" of Æschylus was produced at the Royal Theatre, in a translation and adaptation by G. Soteriades, the ephor of antiquities, whose excellent work of excavation on the site of the ancient Thermon is well known. In his translation he made use of words and expressions belonging to the colloquial language, and thereby aroused the indignation of the students at the University. They met at the University building, and decided upon a demonstration to put a stop to the performance. In the evening a large body of students paraded the streets, gathering the mob of the city in their train. The ordinary police could not cope with the disorder, troops were ordered to the scene, and, before the disturbance ended, one man was killed. Compared with some of the riots that have broken out in our American cities at various times, this was a mild affair, but it shows how strongly some of the Greeks feel about the language question. Undoubtedly the desire to embarrass the Ralli ministry led some to encourage the spirit of disorder, and there were also other motives at work; but the fact remains that the trouble was ostensibly due to the production of the "Oresteia." To an American, one of the unpleasant features of the whole affair was the alliance of the students with the mob. Our own students sometimes disgrace themselves, but they do not invite the mob of the city to join in their processions and help them to attain their ends.

Of much more practical importance than the perennial language question is the equally perennial Eastern Question. The Greeks seem to be firmly persuaded that the disorders in Macedonia are not a genuine popular uprising, but are the work of Bulgarians, who are, to be sure, for the most part, inhabitants of Macedonia, but who are assisted by Bulgarians from over the border with the purpose of making Macedonia more and more Bulgarian by terrorizing, driving away, and killing the Macedonians who are not of Bulgarian blood. This is, of course, intended merely as a prelude to the ultimate annexation of Macedonia by Bulgaria. It is evidently difficult to determine the racial affinities of the mixed population of Macedonia so as to assign to each race its proper numerical position. The statistics given in Greek newspapers make the Macedonian Greeks much more numerous than the statistics given by most authorities; but it is not necessary to accept their figures in order to understand the eager interest with which the Greeks follow events in Macedonia. Even accepting the least favorable statistics, one finds the number of Greeks settled in Macedonia so great that the Greeks of the Kingdom of Greece cannot look on with indifference while Bulgarian influence is spreading, especially when it spreads by fire and sword. There seems to be no expectation that the acceptance by the Porte of the Austro-Russian proposals concerning Macedonia will prevent renewed outrages in the spring, and what the end will be no one can foretell. Meanwhile, the Greek Government is urged to take care of its army, that it may make a good showing when the time comes, for the success of the Bulgarians in Macedonia would not only bring disaster upon the Greeks now settled there, but would put an end to all hope of the expansion of the Kingdom of Greece toward the north. Unfortunately, the necessary measures for the improvement of the Greek army after the recent war with Turkey were neglected or badly carried out.

In the last few days the old discussion

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about the race of the modern Greeks has again come to the front. The Italian Minister here, Signor Silvestrelli, in a report to his home Government, recounted the many inroads and conquests of foreign races since the classical times, and concluded that the Greeks of to-day are the descendants of various ancestors, but hardly of the ancient Greeks. Of course, the Greeks cannot deny the inroads and conquests, but they point to the continuous use of the Greek language and to the obvious survival of some characteristic traits (and, they might add, some ancient superstitions) as proofs that they are really Greek by descent, not merely by habitat. Just now feeling runs high, and there is a rumor that the Italian Minister may be recalled.

Such matters are of the greatest importance to the Greeks, and cannot fail to arouse some interest even among those foreigners who are here but for a short time. But the foreigner's chief interest is in the things of ancient times; and in respect to these things there have been great changes in twenty years. The Acropolis has been laid bare to the solid rock, and, although the earth has been in part replaced for the sake of an attractive appearance, all important foundations are left uncovered—among them those of the ancient temple which stood close to the site of the later Erechtheum. The Erechtheum itself is now undergoing restoration, and the scaffolding erected for that purpose offers unusual facilities for a careful study of all details of the building. The recent restoration of the Parthenon was limited to strengthening and repairing certain damaged portions of the building which threatened to fall, and the few new stones inserted are inconspicuous. No attempt was made to set up the fallen columns or the other stones of the building which lay, and still lie, scattered over the surface of the Acropolis. With the Erechtheum the case is different. Already all the columns, the epistyle, the frieze blocks, ceiling, cornices, and tympanum of the north porch, are restored to their original positions, new blocks being inserted in a few places where the old ones are missing. For the frieze blocks, blue (upper) Pentelic marble is used, instead of the dark Eleusinian stone, the color of which has so changed in the course of time that it is little, if at all, darker than the blue marble. On the western wall the two northern half-columns once more carry an epistyle, and perhaps the missing parts will be replaced by new stones to such an extent as to restore the western wall to something like what it was in ancient times, before the insertion of the Roman windows. The roof and epistyle over the Caryatides and the Caryatides themselves are still to be strengthened, and the southern wall and the eastern colonnade are probably to be repaired. Some of the details of the work are not yet entirely settled. So far, the work has been done with great care and thoroughness under most competent direction. The Erechtheum was repaired and somewhat altered in Roman times, and, after many vicissitudes, was partially restored in 1838. A sentimental protest against the present restoration is therefore somewhat unreasonable. Certainly the building will be far more beautiful than it has been since 1838, and will give the spectator a better idea of its original appearance. The work is conducted by the Greek Achæological Society, which is also restoring the temple of Apollo at Bassæ.

Other changes in various parts of the city bear witness to the diligent digging of archæologists. A large part of what was the market has disappeared, and in its place one sees the remains of Hadrian's magnificent library, while to the west of the Acropolis, in the hollow between the Areopagus and the Pnyx, a series of ancient streets and houses show how far the modern city is from occupying exactly the site of ancient Athens. This is the place where Professor Dörpfeld finds the sanctuary of Dionysus in the Marshes. Here also are remains of the water-works built by Pisistratus, and in the hill of the Pnyx are many channels and several cisterns and chambers belonging in part to still earlier provisions for water supply. Here it is that Professor Dörpfeld places the famous spring of Callirrhoë, changed by Pisistratus to Enneacrunus.

But the changes in the museums are even greater than those in the city at large or on the Acropolis. All over Greece, excavations have been going on for years with ceaseless activity, and the most important portable objects discovered have, with few exceptions, such as the discoveries of Olympia and Delphi, been brought to Athens. The National Museum, in spite of great additions to its building, is filled to overflowing. The priceless collection of inscriptions is for the most part gathered together in an unroofed courtyard, exposed to all the vicissitudes of weather, and works of sculpture which would be the pride of many a museum in Western Europe are hidden from sight in storerooms where only those who already know of their existence are able to see them. Even on the Acropolis delicately carved architectural fragments are lying exposed to the rain and the dust for lack of room in the museums. To the stranger the chief need of Greece seems to be more museum buildings; but no doubt the native Greek feels more keenly the need of other things. Yet, in spite of lack of room, the museums of Athens offer unparalleled advantages to the students of Greek art and epigraphy. Of the contents of the museums and the changes the past twenty years have wrought therein, only a catalogue (and alas! there is no complete catalogue of anything in Athens except the collection of vases) can speak in detail. Nor is it possible within the limits of a letter even to allude to each of the important works of excavation carried on in the last two decades. The visitor is overwhelmed by the number of sites which should be seen, and at each site the excavations have some special interest. Among them all, the French excavations at Delphi are preëminent, though they may be equalled by the excavations at Delos. It is to be hoped, also, that our own excavations at Corinth, the results of which are already important, may be continued to a satisfactory conclusion.

H. N. F.

Correspondence.

THE WORD "PALATINE" IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Lexicographers have paid scant attention to the above word, and Dr. Murray recently informed the writer that his readers had not furnished him with a single American example. Yet, in one way or another, the word has been in use in this country for nearly three centuries; and the facts, both because of some interest in themselves and also because they will correct certain misapprehensions, deserve to be placed on record.

Of the several counties palatine which existed in England in the Middle Ages, but one is mentioned in the early American charters. The rights of the county palatine of Durham were granted as follows: In 1623 to Sir G. Calvert for Avalon, in 1629 to Sir R. Heath for Carolana, in 1632 to Lord Baltimore for Maryland, in 1634 to Sir E. Plowden for New Albion, in 1635 to J. Mason for New Hampshire (but the genuineness of this grant is in doubt), in 1639 to Sir F. Gorges for Maine, and in 1663 and 1665 to the proprietors of Carolina. It is thus seen that several proprietors had palatinate rights, and it would not have been at all surprising had the title "Palatine" been applied to the person or persons to whom the above charters were issued. Nevertheless, except in two instances, there is no proof that Palatine was so applied.

A writer has recently alluded to Sir F. Gorges as "Lord Palatine of Maine" (*Notes and Queries*, July 11, 1903, p. 23). Gorges spoke of himself as "Lord Proprietor and owner of the Province of Maine" or as "Lord of the Province of Maine"; while his grandson, F. Gorges, also spoke of himself as the "Lord Proprietor of the Province of Mayne." Unless evidence to the contrary can be produced, it is safe to conclude that such a title as Lord Palatine was never employed by Gorges.

In the Century Dictionary we read that "the same name [Palatine] is sometimes given to the proprietor of the province of Maryland." Here again the statement may be regarded as erroneous, for the actual title employed by the proprietor of Maryland was "Lord Proprietary," thus corresponding to the "Lord Proprietor" of Maine and to the "Lords Proprietors" of Carolina. Indeed, the word Palatine, with a single exception presently to be mentioned, seems never to have been used in this country as the title of a person before the year 1669. Among the eight original proprietors of Carolina was the famous Earl of Shaftesbury, then (1663) Lord Ashley. In 1666 he made the acquaintance of John Locke, and in 1669 the Fundamental Constitutions of Carolina were drawn up. These are generally attributed to Locke, but the exact share which each had in their preparation seems never to have been determined. In the first and second charters of Carolina, there was a clause in regard to colonial titles of honor; but what was vague in 1663 and 1665 had become specific in 1669, and then for the first time we meet with the titles Palatine, Landgrave, and Cacique.

"The eldest of the lords proprietors shall be palatin, & upon ye decease of ye palatin ye eldest of the seven surviveing proprietors shall always succeed him." 1669, July 21, Fundamental Constitutions, in *Thirty-third An. Rep. of the Dep. Keeper of the Pub. Records* (1872), p. 258.

"The Duke of Albemarle was elected the first Pallatin of Carolina. . . . George Duke of Albemarle the first pallatin of Carolina being dead The Lord Berkeley being the eldest in years of the surviving proprietors succeeded him and was admitted the second pallatin of Carolina. . . .

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Whatever passes under the seal of the Palatinate shall be registered in that proprietor's court to which the matter therein contained, belongs." 1669, Oct. 21, 1670, Jan. 20, March 1, *N. Carolina Col. Records*, i. 179, 180, 194.

"I shall next proceed to treat of the Government, as granted by King *Charles* II. to the Eight Lords Proprietors aforesaid, who again, by common consent, center'd that Power in Four of them, *viz.* in a Palatine of their own election, and Three more who were impower'd to execute the whole Powers of the Charter, and is call'd a Palatines Court; their Deputies in *Carolina* executing the same, as from their Principals they are directed." 1707, J. Archdale, *Description of Carolina*, p. 12.

"It had been usual with them to appoint a Governor and seven Deputies, called the Council, the first of which (the Governor) represented the Palatine, and the others the rest of the *Lords Proprietors*, respectively, and were called the Upper House of Assembly." 1726, F. Yonge, in B. R. Carroll's *Hist. Colls. of S. Carolina* (1836), ii. 144.

In Carolina the term Palatine was for about half a century in use as the title of a person. Nowhere else in this country do we meet with that exact title. But in a single instance the title "Earl Palatine" was claimed and used. One of the most curious, romantic, and obscure episodes in the history of American colonization was the attempt made by Sir Edmund Plowden to found New Albion. The story, though brief, is too long to give in full here: suffice it to say that in 1632 Plowden petitioned Charles I. for a grant of New Albion, that in 1634 he obtained the grant, that soon an expedition came over, that later Plowden himself arrived here, that he was driven off by the Swedes, and that the attempt proved a failure. Equally futile was the effort made in 1784 to revive the claim by Charles Varlo, who, shortly before the outbreak of the Revolutionary war, bought one-third of the charter, reached Philadelphia in July, 1784, issued the pamphlet quoted below, and employed counsel.

"Whereas our Sovereign Lord King Charles, by his highnesses letters-patent, under the great seal of Ireland, bearing date the one-and-twentieth day of June, 1634, hath granted and confirmed to Us, . . . the said title of Earl Palatine, and office of governor." 1634, Dec. 20, in E. Hazard, *Hist. Colls.* (1792), i. 173.

"Sir *Edmund* our noble Governour and Lord Earl Palatine, . . . is sufficiently instructed of the state of the country. . . . And truly, I beleeve, my Lord of *Baltamore* wil be glad of my Lord Palatines Plantation and assistance against any enemy or bad neighbour." 1641, R. Evelin, in B. Plantagenet's *Description of New Albion* (1838), pp. 21, 23.

"Now there be four other Lord Proprietors that have Palatine jurisdiction granted, and Provinces in the *West-India* Isles, *Florida* and *Maryland*, and as free as the Bishop of *Durham* had, but none have a speciall creation of an Earle Palatine, but ours of *New Albion*." 1648, B. Plantagenet, *do.*, p. 13.

"I, S[r] Edmund Plowden of Wansted in the county of Southton Knight, Lord, Earle Palatine, Governor, and Captain Generall of the Province of New Albion." 1655, July 29, Will of Sir E. Plowden, in *Penns. Mag.* (1883), vii. 51.

"To be lett, in the finest parts of America, . . . the estates of the Earle Palatine of Albion." 1784, Jan. 22, *London Evening Post*, in *Mass. Centinel* (14 Aug.), p. 2-3.

"The Address of the Right Hon. Lord *Earl Palatine* of *Albion*, to the Public. True and lawful heir of Sir Edmund Plowden, created Earl Palatine of *Albion*, to whom the charter was granted, did, in the late war, . . . behold his territories invaded." 1784, C. Varlo, *The Finest Part of America*, p. 29.

The uses of the word Palatine thus far considered long ago became obsolete in this country except historically. There is, however, still another meaning of the word, though apparently not yet in the dictionaries. Explanations differ as to why many Germans emigrated from the Palatinate of the Rhine to England in the first decade of the eighteenth century, but such an exodus did take place in 1708. Of the Palatines who then came to England, some were sent to Ireland, others to Carolina, and still others to New York, while in later years emigrants came to this country in large numbers.

"300 more poor Palatines are arrived, so that the whole number here [London] is about 8000." 1709, July 23, N. Luttrell, *Brief Relation* (1857), vi. 467.

"To the 2[nd] Proposal relating to the poor Palatines that shall be transported into North Carolina, It was resolv'd that their Lordships will not undertake to provide them with all provisions they shall want." 1709, Sept. 3, *N. Car. Col. Records*, i. 718.

"I arrived here [N. York] two days ago. We want still three of the Palatin Ships & those arrived are in a deplorable sickly condition." 1710, June 6, Gov. R. Hunter, in *N. Y. Col. Docs.*, v. 165.

"On the 22nd of the last month some . . . Indians . . . began a barbarous Massacre, . . . killing . . . 60 English and upwards of that number of Swiss and palatines." 1711, Oct. 15, A. Spotswood, *Official Letters* (1882), i. 116.

"Then a Petition from divers Palatines was read, praying . . . that they might be allowed to purchase Lands in this Province." 1725, Feb. 10, *Penns. Col. Records*, iii. 241.

"*Ran-away on the* 23d *of May last*, . . . a Dutch Palatine Servant Man, named *Jacob Lasant*." 1739, *N. Jersey Archives*, xi. 569.

"In the afternoon I rode to Ballygarrane [Ireland], a town of Palatines, which came over in Queen Ann's time." 1756, June 16, J. Wesley, *Works* (1826), ii. 344.

"There is a colony of Palatines, that have been fixed here [Arbella] above thirty years; there are now fifteen or sixteen families; Colonel Hasset brought them from the county of Limerick." 1780, A. Young, *Tour in Ireland*, ii. 123.

"Indeed, later in the [18th] century when speculation had taken possession of ocean transportation, sickness was so unfailing a concomitant of the journey that ship fever was generally known in Philadelphia as 'Palatine fever.'" 1901, O. Kuhns, *German and Swiss Settlements of Col. Penns.*, p. 71.

It may be added that as a place-name Palatine still survives, there being now towns, villages, or hamlets named Palatine in Illinois, Kansas, New Jersey, New York, and West Virginia. Finally, there is a townland called Palatine in County Carlow, Ireland.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

Boston, December, 1903.

MEMORIALS OF THE BANCROFTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The publication of the letters of Mrs. George Bancroft in the *Century* may serve as a text for a comment upon one or two facts connected with the family whose name she bore, which are worthy of more than a passing attention, yet which, in the rush of intelligence that overwhelms us in these days, may easily be overlooked.

To-day, when so much has been written and said about the representatives of this country at foreign courts, it is well to recall how distinguished was the place which the Hon. George Bancroft held in Europe at a time when for an American minister to be so highly regarded was almost unique. The letters of Mrs. Bancroft, of course, recall a good many memories of his ministerial career, but more vivid yet must be the impressions furnished by the letters of Mr. Bancroft himself. A selection of these is soon to appear, edited by Mr. M. A. D. Howe, who is preparing the long-delayed authorized biography of the ambassador and historian. The choice of these letters is not an easy matter, for the wealth of interesting and historically valuable correspondence to and from Mr. Bancroft is surprisingly great. This makes for the increased labor of the biographer, but will add exceedingly to the richness of the biography.

Another matter of general interest is the passing of the collections of the late John C. Bancroft (to come down a generation) to the Art Museum of Worcester. This is an event of artistic importance far in excess of the attention it has received. Mr. Bancroft was of artistic temperament of the finest quality; and indeed it is to be questioned whether exquisite fastidiousness of taste may not have had as much to do as delicate health in diverting him from the career as a painter which he seemed likely to follow in the days when he shared the student life in Paris of Whistler, Du Maurier, and the fine Bohemians whose portraits, more or less modified, are to be found in Du Maurier's novels. His appreciation of what was best in art showed itself in many ways, and indeed was a part of the very tissue of his life. No one could come within the sphere of his influence without being attracted by his wonderfully winning personality, and equally was it true that no one could fail to feel how thoroughly artistic was the quality of his mind. The public had no knowledge of the consistency with which he followed a life of artistic pursuit. It was known that Mr. Bancroft had produced some remarkable woodwork, of which an exhibition was held some years ago at the St. Botolph Club in Boston; and his friends were aware that he was for many years a collector of Japanese prints, pottery, and lacquers. The extent and variety of his accumulations were hardly known even to his most immediate circle. Even now, when they are being made available at the Worcester Museum, there is no general knowledge or appreciation of the greatness of the treasure his labor and taste gathered together.

The connection of the Bancroft family with Worcester has been a long one. George Bancroft was born there in 1800, and the roots of the family tree had there struck deep before the close of the eighteenth century. It is eminently fitting that these collections should remain in the Museum of the city as a lasting memorial to the Bancroft name and to the native feeling the Bancrofts have always preserved toward the place. Only an expert could speak critically of Mr. John Bancroft's collections, and I am able to do no more than to mention them. The collection of Japanese prints, which is given outright to the Museum, not only is of superb beauty and worth, but in comparison holds its own as one of the really great collections of the world. Quietly, patiently, with abundant means and with constantly increasing and carefully trained skill, Mr. Bancroft for more than a quarter of a century went on gathering the pictures he thought worthy. He bought unstintedly, but with rare judgment, both in Europe and in Japan, on both sides of the world, sometimes personally and sometimes

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through agents. Many times it has been my pleasant fortune to be present when he examined a fresh instalment of prints from Japan, and his intelligent appreciation and his artistic enjoyment were alike a delight to see. The result of his labors is of worth so great that only time can bring its proper and full appreciation. Now that it is available to the student, the collection must attract the attention of experts and connoisseurs, and will undoubtedly become an *object of loving pilgrimage.*

The lacquers and the pottery are, for the present at least, loaned to the Museum. They by no means include all the works Mr. Bancroft gathered, and indeed not a few of the finest pieces are still in the hands of the family. Even as it is, however, those on exhibition are wonderful in quality, and in themselves are sufficient to confer distinction upon the Museum. The forthcoming biography will revive and keep in memory the distinction of the father, but no less will the art treasures in the Worcester Museum preserve in fragrant remembrance the name of the son. ARLO BATES.

BOSTON, February 9, 1904.

PROFESSORS' SALARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. X. of Ithaca (*Nation*, No. 2014) laments that an instructor receives no more salary than a clerk in a grocery, $700 to $1,000 a year. Why not form a union and present an ultimatum to the board, announcing that grocers' wages no longer go? Hereafter it must be the plasterers' scale, $11 a day, or we lay down our lead-pencils and walk out.

But is money the only measure in the world? How can we compare the vocation of a grocer's clerk delving in sugar and tea—catering merely to the beast in man—to the life of an instructor training and fortifying the intellect and the soul? The grocer's end is money, but an instructor's remuneration should include something beyond the vile dross of material reward. Let him cultivate plain living and high thinking, let him munch his unbuttered toast without cavil, and cast no covetous eye on the grocer's caviare or Mrs. Grocer's diamonds; the former is but a tickling of the palate, and the latter sheer vanity, always a thing of evil.

The instructor who labors in his vocation at $1,000 in preference to another vocation at $2,000, works for something greater than this difference in pay, and he will not lament. The instructor, however, whose mind is mainly fixed on his pay, should shift himself behind a counter for an increase. For an increase—aye, there's the rub; there's where we find the "trout in his milk." Alas, for such an instructor there is no increase, no shopkeeper standing at his door to hail him in. Ten to one, he has tried to exchange his 1,000-dollar job for a better and failed. There is where the shoe pinches. He works at his 1,000-dollar instructorship a sour pedant, because he has reached his limit, the highest sum at which his services are wanted, as instructor, as genius, or as anything else.

It is difficult to persuade an ordinary mortal that gold dollars need beg for fifty cents. The world clamors for competency, for in the upper realm the population is as thin as the air. A Rockefeller will always get his millions, and a Thoreau his life everlasting. Unfortunately—or perhaps fortunately—the school board and the storekeeper pay for their help the market price. If a great university pays but $1,000 to its instructors, it does so because good instructors are obtainable at that figure. The board cannot hire the instructor below his price; if he considers himself worth $2, he need not work for $1. And would it be good policy or good sense on the part of a school board to pay $2,000 for services that are offered for $1,000? Does our 1,000-dollar instructor himself follow this practice? Does he pay a newsboy two cents for a paper while a bunch of other urchins swarm about him with uplifted arms and shrilly voices, crying, "Here's your paper for a penny"?

A. GROCER.

ILLITERACY OF NEGROES DECREASING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On page 2312 of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1902, I find that

"The colored enumeration included the negroes, Chinese, Japanese, and the Indians. In 1900, the colored population, ten years of age and over, was 6,698,906, in which number were 2,979,323 illiterates, or 44.5 per cent., as compared with 56.8 in 1890, 70 in 1880, and 79.9 in 1870."

This is an encouraging report, and the ratio of decrease promises well for the future.—Yours truly, C. E. W.

BUFFALO, N. Y., February 10, 1904.

THE ARUNDEL CLUB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Sir W. M. Conway has just started a society called the Arundel Club, to distribute among the members about twenty photographs annually of pictures in private British collections. The value of such an association will doubtless be appreciated in this country; and libraries and persons wishing to subscribe (one guinea a year) are requested to communicate with Sir W. M. Conway, The Red House, Hornton Street, London, W.—Yours faithfully,

B. BERENSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 15, 1904.

Notes.

'Evidence for a Future Life,' from the French of Gabriel Delanne, by Miss Helen Dallas, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Professor Woodberry, it is announced by McClure, Phillips & Co., is to have editorial direction of "McClure's Universal Library," a thousand volumes of English and American classics, and "all the vital literature of the world, both ancient and modern." A complete text with only explicatory notes, and a brief critical and biographical introduction for each volume, are some of the features of this ambitious undertaking.

During the present season Macmillan will bring out the first two volumes of 'The American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century,' by Prof. Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia, and in the fall, 'Modern Methods of Charity,' by Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson and Dr. E. Münsterberg, Director of Poor Relief in Berlin.

'Points at Issue, and Some Other Points,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale (Macmillan), is a collection of essays mainly reprinted from magazines. Some of the subjects are "Literature and the Colleges," "Literature and the Civil War," "Emerson's Transcendentalism," and "The Modern Feeling for Nature." The essay on Emerson is a painstaking attempt to trace his Transcendentalism to its source in German philosophy.

'The Mirrour of Justices' has been added by John Byrne & Co. (Washington) to their "Legal Classic Series." The text used is that followed by William Hughes, and there is an introduction by William C. Robinson. 'The Mirrour of Justices' is of no value as a law book, and of much less interest in every way than the very entertaining essay by Prof. F. W. Maitland with which the Selden Society reintroduced it to the world in 1893. No one has ever made out what it is, or who wrote it, or why it was written, and it is safe to say that no one except legal antiquarians very much cares. If the book was meant to be copied and read, "it was a miserable failure"; the text is so corrupt that to get at the original a good editor of the 'Mirrour' "ought to know what mediæval French would sound like when spoken by a mediæval Englishman and listened to by a sleepy clerk." Mr. Maitland calls it a "fantasia" and a "variety entertainment," though certainly not of a lively kind, and denounces the author as a "liar" because he makes statements as to the law which seem to have been intentionally false. But there is no more reason to suppose that Andrew Horn, or whoever composed the 'Mirrour,' meant to deceive than to impute such a design to the author of the 'Comic Blackstone.' It is, we believe, held to be conceivable that he was a humorist; but if so, the book is in that respect also a failure. There is no evidence that the author's joke, or irony, or whatever it was, was ever taken. The vogue of the work is that of a legal *lusus naturæ*, and as such it certainly stands by itself.

What answers for a preface to 'The Hundred Best Pictures' (Charles Letts & Co.) is mainly concerned with the obvious reasons why the book should have been called something else. That any selection of one hundred pictures should be "the best" is absurd, but in this case such more rational titles as 'One Hundred Masterpieces' or 'One Hundred Great Paintings' would be almost equally undeserved; for while many of the pictures engraved are famous, many others are merely popular—a very different thing. It is therefore scarce worth while to criticise the selection of works from any very serious point of view, but an idea of the tastes appealed to may be formed from the fact that, of the artists represented, twenty-seven are put down as of the English School (though we must contest the right of that school to claim Whistler or even Sargent) against sixteen of the French School and only ten of the Italian, and still smaller numbers of the other great schools. The painters chosen for illustration are seventy-four in number, of whom thirty-nine, or more than half, may be rated as of the past century, and these thirty-nine artists painted forty-eight of the one hundred pictures. What the book is, then, is a collection of one hundred popular pictures reproduced in photogravure, and for the most part very well reproduced, with a bit of let-

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terpress opposite each picture. These snippets of text are of the least possible value, either biographical or critical, and might as well have been omitted. It is as a picture-book pure and simple that the work must be considered, and as such it will doubtless give much pleasure. "The pictures are so inserted that, if desired, they can be removed and framed or placed in an album." There are a couple of pages of "signatures of artists," at the end, which contain an extraordinary mixture of picture signatures and autographs; and two of these signatures are of artists other than those represented in the plates—Giacomo Tintoretto instead of Jacopo, and Solomon Ruysdael instead of Jacob.

Methuen & Co. have issued 'John Bull's Adventures in the Fiscal Wonderland,' by Charles Geake and F. Carruthers Gould. This is a close imitation of 'Alice in Wonderland' both in story and in the illustrations, which are cleverly adapted to meet the incidents and scene-shiftings of the present controversy. The fiscal tournament ends in the complete discomfiture of the Mad Hatter (Chamberlain), who, in the character of the Knave of Spades, is then put on trial for stealing loaves. Recent bye-elections seem to justify this prognostication of the eventual outcome, but perhaps the resources of "pushfulness" have not yet been fully tested.

'The Care of Animals,' by the veterinary surgeon and teacher Dr. Nelson S. Mayo (Macmillan), treats of animals both in disease and in health. It takes up surgery, medicine, and obstetrics in relation to farm animals, and admirably translates the technical into the simple and intelligible. Dr. Mayo not only has had wide practical experience, but has at his finger tips the references to the latest articles in his science. Perhaps, however, in certain cases one might call his prognoses too optimistic. Many stockmen are to a large extent their own veterinarians, and all stockmen must hold towards their sick animals the relation of the trained nurse to her patient. This book shows how to supplement by intelligent coöperation the services of the skilled veterinarian, and gives invaluable help in cases where such services are not at hand. It also contains directions concerning the general care and the quarters of farm animals, the care of pets, and the judging, handling, and shoeing of horses. The text on sanitary quarters, etc., needs more illustrations. On the whole, the book must prove a treasure to every owner of stock.

In Mrs. Roger A. Pryor's 'The Mother of Washington and her Times' (Macmillan) there is little of Mary Washington that can be regarded as historical. The facts that she was born, married, and bore an illustrious son can hardly be expanded into a volume of size without much padding, and so Mrs. Pryor draws a full "picture" of Virginia life in colonial times, through colored glasses. Superlatives abound, and an aristocratic society is described that certainly never existed in Virginia. Every man is superb and splendid, and every woman rarely beautiful and accomplished. In such surroundings Mary Washington naturally receives little attention, for her nature was "gloomy" and severe. Washington's own letters about his mother are ignored, and a challenge thrown down to every one who questions Custis's gossip. "I should doubt," adds Mrs. Pryor, "the authenticity of any letter tending to lower our estimation of Washington's character"—something entirely beyond the real question involved. It is difficult to see how such a book serves a useful end, for it gives a distorted view of men and things, and, while professing to use manuscript records, in reality depends more upon Lossing, Custis, and like authorities. The colored illustrations are good, but the portraits are neither good nor novel.

Miss Adelaide R. Hasse has found two interesting pieces of early New York printing, which have been reproduced in facsimile (Dodd, Mead & Co.). One is 'A Narrative of an Attempt Made by the French of Canada upon the Mohaque's Country,' first printed by Bradford in 1693, and now believed to have been the first book printed in New York. It is a short but spirited account of a dash against the French intruders, with some curious papers illustrating the relations of the English to the Indians. The second issue is the Journal of the New York House of Representatives, printed by Bradford in 1695. It is not only an early issue of Bradford's press, but the first printed legislative proceedings among the colonies. The nine numbers are said to be complete, although No. 4 is missing, of which Miss Hasse gives no explanation. The reprint does not make so handsome a volume as that of the Massachusetts Journals for 1715, nor does it contain an index. It is much to be wished that the series be continued, so as to place at the service of students these invaluable early records. The same house has issued Brereton's 'Relation,' Hariot's 'Virginia,' and the 1637 edition of Milton's 'Comus,' as they were published in the *Bibliographer*. The mechanical execution is excellent, and should have been followed in the reissue of Eliot's 'Logic Primer,' edited by Wilberforce Eames (Cleveland: Burrows Bros.). In its present form all the distinctive flavor and appearance of this curious compilation for the instruction of Indians are wanting.

Dr. Samuel A. Green prints a third series of 'Ten Facsimile Reproductions,' which again shows an interesting collection of rarities and careful study of them. The collection of Mather portraits is alone of high value, and is made all the more valuable for the connection of the earliest portrait with John Foster, the first engraver in New England. From the rude woodcut of Richard Mather to the mezzotint of Cotton Mather, the first mezzotint engraving executed in America, a great advance is shown. The chapter on the Boston *News-Letter* contains much curious information on this earliest of American newspapers. Why there should have been two editions of the first issue is a problem which even Dr. Green is unable to solve. The early examples of "flying posts" are taken from unique examples, and the reproductions are unusually good. The practice of attempting to reprint old newspapers from type has many disadvantages. Yet, as every collector knows, copies of such reprints are frequently offered under the mistaken belief that they are originals. Paul Revere's own account of the signals for his ride, a panorama of Boston in 1775, and Romans's "Battle of Charlestown," are of local interest, while the "crossed swords" of Prescott and Linzee offer a text for peace. The larger part of the various objects reproduced in this volume are in the Massachusetts Historical Society, in which Dr. Green has done such efficient service.

The Roman *Minerva* of January 24 throws interesting light on the educational shortcomings of Italian recruits. The recruits in question did not come from remote country districts, but from the thickly populated provinces of Verona and Vicenza, where elementary education is quite general. Fourteen per cent. of those examined could not name the capital of Italy, while 55 per cent. did not know the principal city of Lombardy. Fifty per cent. did not know the largest river in Italy, while one answered the Jordan, and another the Nile. But, most surprising of all, nearly one-third of these young men had never heard of Garibaldi; one of them described him as *un garibaldino*, and another as *un homo poco religioso*. The editor of *Minerva* finds these results discouraging, but takes some comfort from a recent examination of French recruits at Orléans, where 50 per cent. had never heard of Joan of Arc, and two-thirds knew nothing of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870; but in the latter case, "where ignorance is bliss, etc."

A writer, signing himself "O. B.," in the *Beilage* of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 266, delivers a sharp critique of the literary output of Germany, which in the last few years has passed the 25,000 line. Germany is generally credited not only with publishing the greatest number of books, but also the largest proportion of solid works. The article in question declares that the great bulk of this literary crop is trash, it being the rule of the German book trade to publish many books, with a chief care for outward good appearance. He calls for a new policy, namely, fewer books, but better books. He declares it to be a mystery what becomes of the immense annual mass of books, for the Germans are not book-buyers, preferring to make use of the circulating libraries. Dr. Carl Trübner, the Strassburg publisher, in a recent brochure, 'Wissenschaft und Buchhandel,' states that an inquiry made by him of the leading book publishers of Germany has shown that, out of every ten manuscripts offered for publication, only one is printed. Germany might, accordingly, have a literary output of 250,000 volumes each year.

In a brief account of the final establishment of the boundary between Burma and China, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* number twelve, Dr. Emil Schlagintweit calls attention to the fact that now England is able to reach Yunnan and the valley of the Yangtze before either the French or the Germans. The Chinese frontier officials not only are friendly to the British, but are improving the roads and bridges to accommodate the increasing Burmese traffic caused by the extension of the railway system to the frontier. Among the other contents is a census schedule of questions prepared by the International Institute for Statistics for the use of persons making ethnographic or sociological investigations among savage or half-civilized peoples. The editor, Dr. Supan, concludes a summary of the scientific results of the German Antarctic expedition with the remark that "we cannot conceal from ourselves the fact that this first great Antarctic undertaking of our nation is a torso." Failure was whol-

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ly from lack of funds, not from the inefficient equipment of the ship nor from lack of zeal in its commander.

According to the reports published by Smyrna papers, Professor Dörpfeld has unearthed, in the course of his archæological excavations in ancient Pergamum, a magnificent hall of columns fully sixty metres in length, which apparently was a grand portico. Among the finds made here was a life-size woman's head in marble, also the inscribed base of a statue of Æsculapius, a large vase with the figure of Apollo, and, more noteworthy, four marble slabs covered with a hieroglyphic style of script, and pictures of various theatrical scenes and actors, men, women, and girls. Two other marble heads were found, one being that of Bacchus, the other probably that of the Empress Faustina, the wife of Marcus Aurelius.

The activity of the Germans in excavating in Babylonia and Assyria seems to be exerting a reflex influence on other countries. The British Museum has resumed excavations at the mound of Kuyunjik, the site of ancient Nineveh, with the especial object of finding additional remains of the famous library of Ashurbanipal. In this country, also, a new organization has been formed, the Oriental Exploration Fund of the University of Chicago, under the general directorship of President Harper, for the purpose of conducting excavations in Babylonia and Assyria, in Egypt, Syria, and Palestine, the same field occupied by the German Orient-Gesellschaft. This organization has already commenced excavations at Bismya, a ruin site near Nippur in Babylonia, commonly supposed to be the remains of the city of Isin, a place of great importance in the third millennium B. C. The field director of these excavations is Dr. Edgar J. Banks, formerly American consul at Bagdad.

—The leading article in the January number of the Chicago University's *Journal of Sociology* is timely. It treats of the first German Municipal Exposition which, after four years of ripening, gathered its harvest last year in Dresden. It was a convention representing by object-lessons and otherwise what has been doing during recent decades in 124 German cities, none of less population than 25,000. The purpose of the writer (H. Woodhead, of the University) was to present the results of his own studies at the show in departments concerned with (1) traffic, including the laying-out of streets, pavements—whether asphalt or tallow-tree—lighting, street cars, railway stations, bridges, harbors, docks; (2) expansion, endogenous as in Stuttgart, and the more usual exogenous; (3) charities; (4) employment bureaus; (5) sanitation; (6) education; (7) art; (8) finance. The five and twenty pages cover only the first two topics, but they abound in fresh facts worth American pondering. They have an æsthetic illustration in a fine view of the long-famous Brühl Terrace, with its wharf, and they thicken other proofs which had already demonstrated to our economics that the effete Old World has lessons to teach, at least in municipal advancement, which our New World has yet to learn. Among our jottings we find that houses are made for streets, not streets for houses —no spite fences, no great-toe buildings where one of the "basest, poorest, thrusts itself foremost." Strassburg has doubled its area since 1875. Schoenberg, a suburb of Berlin, of 500 people in 1800, has come up to 114,000. Cities, notably Hamburg, have done much in tearing down slum houses and putting up in their stead no hotbeds of disease, vice, and crime. Thanks to mammoth flats, a bequest of Krupp secures good lodging to all Essen operatives, and one still larger in Leipzig will soon become as humanitarian there. In general, trolleys are overhead. Gas for both heat and light is too cheap to be soon ousted by electrics. Though no river is large, one Munich bridge cost a million marks. Had German police inspection even without domiciliary visits existed in Chicago, the Iroquois holocaust would have been impossible.

—'The Religious Sense in Its Scientific Aspect,' by Greville Macdonald, M.D., (A. C. Armstrong & Son), is made up of three lectures delivered in King's College, London. If all the matter here was used, each lecture must have been several hours long. A good deal of time is wasted in eloquent protestation. The book invites us to a line of thought which is parallel with that of the late Henry Drummond's 'Natural Law in the Spiritual World,' without, however, a resolve to force an orthodox confession from the lower and the lowest evolutionary forms. There is here every appearance of a sincere search for truth and not for a mere confirmation of preconceived opinions, but many particulars are conceived too curiously to have a convincing character. The endeavor is to show that the roots of religion as service and as renunciation are to be discovered in animal and vegetable forms. It has perhaps never occurred to any one before to use the sponge as typical of the "Religion of Service." When a man is called a sponge, it is commonly with a view to his depreciation; but Dr. Macdonald finds the growing sponge to be full of indications of a germinal religion of service. Each individual part is unconsciously intent upon the welfare of the whole. A second lecture, "The Religion of Renunciation," aims to show that Keats's teaching, "Beauty is truth, truth beauty," is confirmed by animal and vegetable forms. The third lecture reminds us of the wise child's saying, "Flowers can't *not* be good." A man is shown to be better than a sponge or guelder-rose because his is the "Religion of Freedom," while they are in the bondage of necessity. The prosperity of this book will depend much on the individual reader. One may approve its leading thought—the involution of the highest in the lowest—and still find the expression vague and wearisome.

—Several years ago Mr. Beckles Willson wrote a history of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 'Ledger and Sword' (Longmans) he takes up the annals of a still greater corporation, the East India Company. His point of view is an interesting one. Instead of writing chiefly about Clive, Hastings, and those later servants of the company who built up the Indian Empire, he makes his narrative centre in Leadenhall Street. For one reason, the company transacted a large amount of business outside of India; for another, Mr. Willson thinks that it has been treated rather badly by historians in being made wholly subordinate to the political careers of its own agents. As a popular sketch of its rise, prosperity, and extinction, these two volumes are the first in the field. Mr. Willson is not, apparently, a special student of Eastern affairs, but he has had good materials to draw from, and he takes up his subject at the right end. In several important respects the work is open to criticism. While better proportioned than the author's book on the Hudson's Bay Company, it is crowded with minor names and details, suggesting too much the process of abridgment from monographs. It is marred by signs of national prejudice and by *obiter dicta* like the reference (vol. i., p. 380) to the Presidency of the United States. It contains remarkable slips, like the statement (vol. ii., p. 402) that Disraeli was premier in 1858. Yet, despite conspicuous shortcomings, it has the merit of sticking to the main point. The development of the corporation is kept in full view and steadfastly set forth as the main subject. There are books enough and to spare about the Indian Empire, but the aims and methods of the Company itself have received hitherto less than their due share of attention. While we cannot admit that Mr. Willson has made the most of his fine theme, we recognize the difficulties of the task, and are glad that he has reduced so much important information to a convenient form.

—The last quarterly statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains the sixth report of the English excavations at Gezer (August 16—Nov. 16, 1903). Nothing of any great importance has been discovered since the issuance of the last report, and indeed, as a whole, the excavations have been very disappointing in their failure to yield inscribed material. The principal work of the last quarter has been the excavation of a huge rock-cut cistern, capable of containing four million gallons of water, which, from the objects found within it, Mr. Macalister ascribes to the Maccabæan period. To an earlier time belong a number of "Astarte plaques." Still earlier was "an *adult* human foundation sacrifice" of a woman, the first found on this site. It will be remembered that Mr. Macalister discovered in 1902 burnings and burials of the very early inhabitants of Gezer in caves beneath the later ruins. He now reports the discovery of the necropolis of the Seleucid period, on the hillside to the north of the town. But here, as elsewhere, the tombs or graves of the Hebrew period remain as yet undiscovered. Sir Charles Wilson concludes in this number a series of articles on the site of the Holy Sepulchre. His conclusion is that, while "there is no decisive reason, historical, traditional, or topographical, for placing Golgotha and the Tomb where they are now shown"—that is, at the present Church of the Holy Sepulchre in Jerusalem—on the other hand, "no objection urged against the sites is of such a convincing nature that it need disturb the minds of those who accept, in all good faith, the authenticity of places which are hallowed by the prayers of countless pilgrims since the days of Constantine."

—The Archæological Report of the Egypt Exploration Fund for the year 1902-1903 gives an account of the excavations conducted by Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt on behalf of the Greco-Roman Branch of the Fund, and contains the usual summaries of progress during the year in the various de-

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partments of Egyptology. The excavations at Hîbeh, begun the previous year, were brought to completion, yielding some papyrus cartonnage from Ptolemaic rock-tombs, which had, however, been rifled in ancient times. The mounds in the town itself proved to be of little value for papyrus, being much affected by dampness. At Cynopolis, little papyrus was found, but persons interested in ancient (and modern) superstitions will find their account in the numerous burials there of "Osiris figures." These "were made of grain wrapped up in cloth and roughly shaped like an Osiris, and placed inside a bricked-up recess at the side of the tomb; sometimes in small pottery coffins, sometimes in wooden coffins in the form of a hawk-mummy, sometimes without any coffin at all. . . . These Osiris figures were buried at the ploughing season, and were offerings to the corn-god." The last part of the season was spent at the old site of Oxyrhynchus, and the rich returns in papyrus of the excavations there, yielding among other things six new Sayings of Jesus, and part of a new and historically important Epitome of Livy, as well as many Greek classical fragments, some previously unknown, have already been mentioned in these columns. From the report of progress may be mentioned the distressing account of threatened ruin of the Temple of Philæ by the winter flooding of the island, and an article by Gain on mummy wheat and barley, which seems to do away with the popular belief about grain being raised from such seed. The writer points out that such grains from Egyptian tombs, however fair and fresh in appearance, are always of a brownish color and incapable of germination, and that a single century of age is sufficient to produce its "fossilization."

—Picard's "Collection de Textes," so long a series of the highest quality, is still further enriched by a new edition of Philippe de Commynes (Paris: Picard & Fils). The editor, M. de Mandrot, has published at intervals since 1886 a number of excellent studies relating to the period of Louis XI. Several of these will be familiar to readers of the *Revue Historique*, and others have appeared as separate monographs. No work in the historical literature of France is more justly famous than the 'Memoirs' of Commynes. Despite some recent attacks upon its good faith, it stands pretty much where it has always stood since the early years of the sixteenth century—in other words, since it was first printed. That it should already have been honored by 123 editions is not surprising, when we consider how important was the political rôle of Commynes and how interesting is his style. But while the 'Memoirs' have been praised by French critics from Montaigne to Sainte-Beuve, a good many obstacles stand in the way of a satisfactory text. The original manuscript has been lost, and the variations in the different copies are extremely numerous. Moreover, most of the existing manuscripts fail to contain Books VII. and VIII., which deal with the reign of Charles VIII. Down to 1880, when M. Léopold Delisle published his 'Mélanges de Paléographie et de Bibliographie,' it was, indeed, supposed that no manuscript extant embraced this portion of the work. Accordingly, there was no basis for collation with the printed page of the sixteenth century. M. Delisle announced the discovery of a manuscript which, in the words of M. de Mandrot, is "the most complete and the least incorrect that we possess." It also has a remarkable pedigree, since it belonged to Anne de Polignac, Countess of La Rochefoucauld, and a niece of Hélène de Chambes, the wife of Commynes himself. Though described by M. Delisle, the new manuscript has not been published until now, when M. de Mandrot puts it forward as a substitute for all other texts. The value of the present edition, however, does not depend alone upon the facts which have just been recited. The introduction contains a long and critical account of Commynes's life, together with a discriminating appreciation of his 'Memoirs.' Certain gaps in the record of the historian's career, M. de Mandrot, like his predecessors, is unable to fill up. For example, he offers no fresh information concerning the circumstances under which Commynes left the service of Charles the Bold and entered that of Louis XI. On the other hand, he gives a full account of the litigation between Commynes and the family of La Trémoille over the Châteaux of Argenton, Talmont, and Château-Gaultier. It is with regret that we find ourselves unable to compare the present edition with those of Mlle. Dupont and M. Chantelauze, or to discuss the leading points in the character of the 'Memoirs' which M. de Mandrot raises. We must be content to say that his preliminary essay is one of great learning, and that his notes, besides being numerous, are drawn from a wide range of sources.

BRADLEY'S "CANADA."

Canada in the Twentieth Century. By A. G. Bradley, author of 'The Fight with France for North America,' 'Wolfe,' 'The Conquest of Canada' (in Cambridge Modern History), etc. Illustrated. London: A. & C. Constable; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903. Pp. xii, 428.

Mr. Bradley read, he tells us, in a Southern paper an account of the military force of Canada as seen by an eyewitness, who deposed that there were in the Dominion half a million of dead-shots, all under secret orders for a prompt invasion of the United States in case of war. Every man of the half million was able to hit the bull's-eye without failing at five hundred yards. The entire population was absorbed in rifle shooting, and men took their position in life from the number of consecutive bull's-eyes they could make. Matches could not be completed because all the marksmen went on scoring bull's-eyes till sunset. The whole force was ready to be hurled in a moment on the ill-prepared people of the United States. We must accept Mr. Bradley's assurance for the fact that the writer was serious.

On the other hand, Canadians are liable, if not to ignorance so ridiculous as this, to serious ignorance of the people of the United States. Many of them, at least if we may judge from the utterances of their press, fancy that our eyes are always turned towards them with sinister intent, and that we are a standing conspiracy against their independence. Their self-esteem would perhaps be hurt as much as their fear would be relieved if they knew how very little is usually thought or said about them on this side of the line. An Englishman who has been conversant for many years with people of all classes and parties in the United States, has declared that he never heard a single expression of hostility to Canada or of desire for her forcible annexation. She was naturally, though perhaps not deservedly, involved, as a dependency of Great Britain, in the resentment caused by the conduct of the British oligarchy and its organs towards the United States in the day of their peril. She thereby lost the Reciprocity Treaty. But that would have been the time when the people of the United States, with a victorious army and a large fleet on foot, if they had cherished any designs against Canada, might have been tempted to carry them into execution. Not a thought of the kind was entertained. Persistent efforts on the part of British and Canadian Jingoism combined to inoculate Canada with anti-American feeling and create in the north of the continent a power antagonistic to the United States, may possibly some day breed mischief; but in the meantime Canada may rely upon it that, far from having an enemy, she has rather a dormant ally in the American Republic. So long as she remains quiet and keeps clear of European quarrels, the United States, as the great interest of this continent, will not allow it to be invaded by European war.

Mutual information, therefore, is welcome. Mr. Bradley gives us information about Canada fully, pleasantly, and, so far as we can see, fairly. There is, at all events, no appearance of bias, though on some subjects—politics and society, for instance—there is apparently a prudent reserve. As to politics, recent reports of the action of the party machine in Ontario seem to show that there is a good deal to be desired.

What we most desiderate, in forming a judgment on the Canadian question, present and future, is a map showing the real configuration and limits of habitable and cultivable Canada, with the territorial relations of the different provinces to the adjoining States of the Union. Canada is not, as it is conventionally painted, a solid mass of country, comprising all between the boundary of the United States and the North Pole, but a straggling row of provinces broken by great wastes, or by great barriers of nature such as Lake Superior and the triple range of the Rocky Mountains; and for the most part not very deep, though the depth of the Northwestern Territory is as yet unascertained. In this consists the practical problem of those who have undertaken to weld the scattered members of the Dominion into a permanent State separate from the adjoining portions of the Union towards which each of them seems naturally drawn. In the debate on Canadian confederation a speaker, having used the familiar image of the sticks gaining strength by being bound up together, was asked whether the same thing can be said of seven fishing-rods tied together by the ends. Mr. Bradley shows in a passage of his text that he is not unconscious of the fact; but the map at the beginning of his book rather suggests the other idea.

Mr. Bradley gives us a good picture of French Canada, which, instead of fulfilling Durham's forecast by being absorbed in the British element, is, if possible, more intensely national, and more disposed to assert its nationality, than ever. Over official buildings flies the British flag; else-

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where flies the French. The connection of Quebec with Old France, however, is not close. French Canada is a little nation of itself; not an outlying member of the French Republic, but a relic of the France before the Revolution, only that the power once divided among the King, the aristocracy, and the priesthood now centres in the priesthood, with a little reserved for the notary. Intercourse with the Republic which is closing religious schools and expelling religious orders, is not likely to be fostered by the Catholic priesthood, which retains its ascendency in French Canada and moulds the people in accordance with its own ideas. There is, however, an anti-clerical party called the Rouge, and the hold of the curé has been somewhat loosened by railways and other facilities of communication which break up rural seclusion; by the advance, though slow, of popular education; and, most of all, by intercourse with the manufacturing States of the Union, to which the overflowing population of Quebec goes for employment, many returning and bringing back republican notions in their trunks. Marriage and remarriage are enjoined by the clergy; the offspring are very numerous; and, besides spilling into New England, the French are gaining on the British population in Canada itself, have ousted the British from the townships south of the St. Lawrence, and are advancing in eastern Ontario and along the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

The fact, indeed, is, that though the British in Canada are the dominant race, they are not the majority; the majority being made up of French, Celtic and Catholic Irish, and various nationalities. The French, though perfectly content with British institutions, are far from being British, still farther from being Imperialist, in sentiment. They would at once repel Imperial Federation, or any scheme by which their nationality was threatened. Of this their leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, shows himself thoroughly aware. It was not love of Great Britain, but hatred of the New England Puritan, who had threatened their religion, that led them to side with England against the insurgent colonies. It was not love of Great Britain, but hatred of the French Revolution animating their priesthood, that led them to side with England against Napoleon. Mr. Bradley says they told him they would fight for Great Britain against the Americans. He probably put a leading question which they answered with characteristic courtesy. Mingling as they now are with the Americans, they can hardly dream of them as foes.

There were about a hundred French Canadians, as Mr. Bradley is informed, in the South African Contingent. That number of rovers or mercenaries might be picked up in any country. It has been stated, on the authority of Sir John Macdonald, that there were forty thousand Canadian enlistments in the American army in the course of the Civil War. Only attachment to a Premier of their own race led the French Canadians to acquiesce in the sending of the Contingent. Mr. Bradley is probably right in saying that Sir Wilfrid Laurier's own feeling was "negative," and that his motive for acquiescence was fear of ruining his position. This Mr. Bradley calls "sensible opportunism." Opportunism is a polite name for that which our rude ancestors called "time-serving." It is difficult, we should say, to imagine anything more criminal or meaner than the conduct of a Minister who commits a nation to an unjust war from fear of impairing his own position.

In his chapter on Ontario, Mr. Bradley gives useful information and advice to Englishmen who think of taking to farming there. They must be prepared to work as no English tenant farmer works, and generally to face a pretty hard life. Probably they had better stay where they are. Land must now be cheap in England, where, mainly through the scarcity of farm hands, farming has been depressed and large areas have gone back from arable into pasture. Of those who emigrate for a living, the only one who is likely to find it in Ontario is the farm hand or the man who is willing to become one. For them there is a great demand. Clerks, teachers, and members of the less manual callings generally come only to starve on the street. We heard the other day of a man of this class who was fain to earn his bread as a common laborer. The manufacturers of late have been inviting artisans, probably in consequence of the strikes. Ontario does not now raise much wheat for exportation, and would not be captured by an offer of preferential duties for grain. Her exports to England are cattle, pork, and dairy produce.

Mr. Bradley does justice to the attractions of Toronto, which, with its villa suburbs of Rosedale and the island, is a beautiful city, though to the eyes of the visitor coming to it on the lake it is apt to be shrouded in factory smoke. Muddy Little York, as it used to be called in its infancy, has been growing of late at a pace which a few years ago hurried it into a "boom," with the usual wreck of boomers. It is the heart of the British element, and consequently of Toryism, loyalty, imperialism, sense of superiority to Yankees, and all ultra-British sentiments and aspirations. Representatives of the American press and observers generally who take it for the type of Canada, may carry away misleading ideas.

The point of most interest at present is the Northwest, with its immense fertility and its extent as yet undefined. Of this Mr. Bradley gives a good account, with remarks of practical value to young Englishmen, especially young English gentlemen, who are thinking of coming out to settle. Of the young English gentlemen not a few, it is said, went away with the Contingent; others have drifted from the farm to the ranch, or into the Mounted Police. Their habits are better suited for the ranch than for the farm. The Canadian Government has been importing a variety of waifs from Europe—Mennonites, Icelanders, Galicians, and Dukhobors. Some of these, the Mennonites especially, have made good farmers of a rather troglodytic kind, but they do not readily make citizens; nor even as farmers can they vie with the American who is native to the prairie and used to machine culture. American the Northwest was apparently destined to be as soon as the population of Minnesota and Dakota overflowed; and American it is rapidly becoming. The American settlers will no doubt be good citizens under institutions radically resembling their own. As to that, Canada need have no fear. But it is not likely that an American settler in the Northwest will imbibe British megalomania, or desire to share with the imperialist of the Toronto Club the glorious expense and liabilities of Britain's little wars. As the Northwest fills up, supposing the Dominion to remain on its present footing, the centre of power will probably be drawn westward and the councils of the Confederation will change. There is still a struggle between the fertility of the soil and the severity of the sub-arctic climate. But the early frosts, which were the terror of the farmer, seem to have been somewhat mitigated by cultivation. It might have been supposed that the region was intended by nature for large farms, but experiments of that kind have failed, owing to the expense of maintaining the staff through the winter.

The treatment of the Indians by the Canadian Government has been very good, and has offered the unfortunate race every chance of salvation, but apparently in vain. Mr. Bradley is mistaken, we believe, in thinking that there was danger of a general uprising of the Indians at the time of the Riel rebellion. Poundmaker, when he was attacked by a Canadian corps, was resting peacefully on his Reserve. Nor does Mr. Bradley seem to be perfectly well informed with regard to the insurrection of the French Half-breeds. Those poor people had a grievance. The good Archbishop Taché had warned the Government, but his warning was pigeon-holed, and the Half-breeds, receiving no response, at last rose in despair. Two thousand is an overestimate of the number of their fighting men, which probably did not exceed seven hundred, while many of them were poorly armed. They made a gallant defence of the hamlet, which was their country as well as their home. French Canada showed the feeling of race on the occasion. Two French battalions of volunteers were called out, but were not sent to the front, and the colonels of both left their commands. Sir Wilfrid Laurier vehemently pleaded the cause of the insurgents and protested against the execution of Riel.

Most disastrous has been the conduct of the United States towards Canada. The authors of the Revolution began by fatally estranging the French Canadians, the toleration of whose religion they made a count in their indictment of the imperial country. Afterwards they fawned on them, of course without effect. Then they invaded them, were repulsed, and left lasting hatred behind. By the blunder, at once disgraceful and fatal, of refusing amnesty to the vanquished after a civil war and driving the Loyalists into exile, they planted in British Canada a hostile nationality on their northern frontier. Still, intercourse, trade, and some blending of population had considerably improved relations when, fired by Clay and his War Hawks, the people of the United States again invaded Canada and were again repulsed. The war of 1812 forms the heroic history of British Canadians, who are never tired of recalling its minutest incidents. It left a lasting impression on their feelings towards the invader. In 1837 the American Government might, by throwing its force on the side of the revolutionists, have given them a victory which would not improbably have been followed by annexation. But it allowed just enough filibustering to irritate and revive enmity. Of late years its policy has been, by hostile tariffs, to force Canada to

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produce for Europe, turning her face generally, as was natural, to the same quarter with her trade. Another crisis in the Canadian question has now been brought on by Chamberlain's agitation; and if the influences which at present rule our Senate continue to prevail, we may look forward to seeing another fiasco added to the long line.

RECENT FICTION.

Mr. Salt. By Will Payne. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Forerunner. By Neith Boyce. Fox, Duffield & Co.

Jewel: A Chapter in her Life. By Clara Louise Burnham. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Congressman's Wife. By John D. Barry. The Smart Set Publishing Co.

In Old Plantation Days. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Tennessee Todd. By G. W. Odgen. A. S. Barnes & Co.

Sally of Missouri. By R. E. Young. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Panics, the World's Fair, domestic scenes at Cora, Wisconsin, fill in the pages of 'Mr. Salt,' and there is a sketch of life at the coal-mines which is the most dignified part of the book. Morals and manners, as it would be easy to show by extracts, are second-rate, and the merits of the novel are those of a faithful transcript of themes outside the literary pale, but in these days striving hard to come in. They must live, doubtless, with other modern improvements; but it is time that publishers specialized so that the reader, though a fool, may not err, but may know whether he is to read a story or enter a machine shop or wrangle in the Stock Exchange. He who reads does not always feel like running. He may even cherish the hope of a literary hour when he draws his armchair up to the fire. Surely it is his right to know whether his book is to be a book, or journalism or journalisticism, or photography of the man in the street, the girl at the telephone, the clerk in the lunchroom. The photographs may be lifelike—in the case of 'Mr. Salt' they are cleverly so. Literature they are not, and novels they should not be called any longer.

'The Forerunner' opens as if it were to belong to this same turbulent variety of book, beginning as it does with a land boom and an auction in Los Angeles. It is, however, much more than a manifestation of modern commotion, even though booms and mines and railways surround and to some extent supply its theme. The hero is an incarnation of fighting initiative in all modern and commercial enterprises. His projects take him from Illinois to California, to Boston, to New York, to Wyoming. Wedged into his chief propensity is a marked though limited stratum of human nature which lends material for the personal interest. This is complemented by the equally limited human-nature side of his wife, a hard and pleasure-grasping person, of stony propriety and no real stability under real temptation. The book suffers from lack of condensation of its minor characters. They are well drawn, but evaporate into regions beyond the story, injuring its unity though not intrinsically uninteresting. In other words, the raw forces of the story need marshalling, weeding out, and drilling into active service. If, for the lack of this procedure, firmness of structure is to some extent lost, the same accusation cannot be brought against the writer's manner, which is consistent, steady, and to the point. A gift for detail is somewhat over-exercised, yet not to the point of fatigue, while a gift of observation finds expression in such phrases as "The great cause, sign, and conservator of middle-age—the love of work"; and again, "Nicholas had the instinct of solvency highly developed; it was necessary to him to satisfy any reasonable claim upon him, even when a good deal of boredom to himself was involved." In fine, while the book is not unusually large, it is neither small nor usual, conveying a sense of power and of training in all ways except the precise handling of that power. There are sundry loose threads left hanging at the last, too important for such treatment. To embark on a story about mines and railroads, about wives rebelling against their husbands' absorption in business, entitles us to know whether the stockholder's faith was ultimately justified, and what the wife did with her tragically earned freedom. It may be that a sequel volume will tie up these floating threads. It is hard on any other theory to account for the title of the story.

Mrs. Burnham's 'Jewel,' again, which its publishers announce to be "not a juvenile in any sense of the word, but a novel," might well be differentiated from the novel. Considered as a piece of writing, it might take its place among Christian Science documents. Like its author's preceding book, we should suppose that it might receive the "endorsement of Mrs. Eddy and all the leading Scientists." In a busy and much-be-booked world a sub-classification of this sort of literature would be time-saving to readers and librarians. A cross-reference might further relegate this particular volume to the department on the reformation of adults by children. Jewel is a very nice little girl by nature, but by art out of drawing and by Science a charming monstrosity.

'A Congressman's Wife' is a singularly thin story of American politics. No fault is to be found with its morals or its morale. A Congressman misuses his political influence in the interest of his own purse, prompted thereto by a bad man who not only leads him thus astray, but tries to make love to his wife. A woman reporter publishes the story; the Congressman is defeated when trying for reëlection; he sees the error of his ways, returns temporarily to his law practice, and promises to be good when he shall resume political life. A few so-called characters skip and scamper through the mazes of this labyrinth, notably a very modern Fanny and her sweetheart Guy, who say "h'm m'm" for "yes."

Mr. Dunbar, in his book of sketches, speaks of the "romances of the old South that still shed their light among the shadows of slavery." The phrase applied to the negro life of ante-war times with the "big house" element used only as a background, aptly describes the atmosphere of the volume. The romances are episodes of negro love, mischief, religion, superstition. They are of slaves and of mainly kind, protecting masters; scenes from slavery in its least tragic aspect, although the separation of husbands and wives who belong to different plantations plays a part. The tone of the narration is admirable; pure picture-making, the humor unforced, with no superfluous ornament and no *hæc fabula docet*. The illustrations, by B. Martin Justice, are in sympathy with the text; the cover, by George Wharton Edwards, a cleverly executed drawing of an old mammy in firelit tints. The printing is clear, but the eye is annoyed by a palpable unevenness of spacing, which the curious investigator will find is caused by repeated changing from one to another number of lines on the page.

Mr. Ogden calls his book "a novel of the Great River." It deals with the end of steamboating on the Mississippi, and the building of the St. Louis and Gulf Railway not long after the war. The writer shows familiarity with the technical phases of his subject, but has not limited himself to dry machinery and mechanics. He has used a veritable epoch in American annals as a basis not only for the epic of boat and car, but for a varied human drama which, opening in commercial interests, broadens and multiplies till it embraces all human passions—love, hatred, envy, revenge. The river accompanies but does not monopolize. The writer has shown a fine art in blending the intensely local with the humanly universal; he has spent little time in analyzing his characters, but has let them speak and act and unfold themselves. The story is largely one of episode, but the links are sufficient if not always logical necessities. In the art of avoiding the obvious and hackneyed and keeping to the side of nature and nature's ironies without a sacrifice of form, he has displayed a masterly control of his pen and his material. The book is very well worth reading.

A good pendant to it is 'Sally of Missouri,' showing how different a sort of book may spring from the same soil. This, like that, breathes palpably of Missouri and the lore of Missouri, but more consciously, from the standpoint of the scion of an exiled race returning and falling under the spell of his ancestral hills. Mr. Ogden's book is Missouri. Mr. Young's is a rhapsody about Missouri woven round a story of mines, promoters, and crazy testators. 'Tennessee Todd' is an elemental young savage, none too picturesque; Sally, a Missouri girl who has been to Vassar and has all the accomplishments and charms of all heroines of fiction; a golden-brown houri who says "huh." The book opens supremely well. The departure of the hero from New York to seek his fortune in zinc mining is brisk reading, while his entrance into Missouri life, his ride across country, his meeting with the old St. Louis Frenchman and the tramp boy, are really idyllic, rousing fond hopes of a piece of work hardly less than great. If it does not remain on that level throughout, it is still an uncommon book for breezy charm of person and place, and for admirable lightness and grace of phrase. The improbability of the old cousin's *post-obit* revenge may be accepted uncomplainingly. Who shall call anything testamentary improbable? The slight disappointment awaiting the reader arises rather from the more than mortal capacity for sentiment ascribed to the tramp boy, and to the falling off of that most promising

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Frenchman, Old Bernique, whose career is hardly more than a birth and a forgetting.

The Expansion of Russia, 1815-1900. By Francis Henry Skrine. Cambridge (England) University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1903.

The Russian Advance. By Albert J. Beveridge. Harpers. 1903.

As a result of the present war between Russia and Japan we shall doubtless soon be flooded with hastily compiled works about the Far East of even less value than most of those we already possess. For the same cause recent books describing either combatant are likely to have an increased circulation, owing to their timeliness. The two we have here before us are of very different character, as well as of different degrees of merit. The 'Expansion of Russia,' by Mr. Skrine, offers us an excellent summary of the political history of the country between 1815 and 1900. The author may not be very profound, but at least he has written a clear, succinct narrative which conveys a good idea of the main events he undertakes to describe. His work is careful and scholarly; his attitude sympathetic, and at the same time judicial. If he passes over many subjects very hurriedly, the fault is not so much his as it is that of the limitations of space to which he was obliged to conform. His title has the advantage of indicating what we need not expect to find, namely, a study of internal conditions; otherwise, it is misleading, as it seems to imply that Russian expansion has taken place chiefly in the period indicated, whereas in reality most of this growth occurred considerably earlier. Such as it is, the book can be thoroughly recommended to the general public. It ends with a good short bibliography, including works in Russian as well as in Western languages.

Senator Beveridge's stouter volume deals much less with the past, about which he is little informed, than it does with the present and with the future, where he evidently feels quite at home. In the course of his travels he has been through Siberia and up and down Mantchuria, has seen a good deal, and has questioned indefatigably through an interpreter. Of course we must make the same allowance for him that we should make for a Russian who had acquired his information about the United States in a similar fashion. His errors of one kind or another are indeed too numerous to be pointed out in detail. Let us note only that of his maps the one on "The Historical Russian Advance" is absurdly wrong, as it represents the Russians in 1648 as not having crossed the Urals, when in reality they had reached Bering Strait. On the other hand, the conquest of Central Asia (apart from Khiva and Bokhara) is shown as having occurred before 1809, instead of more than half a century later. The second map, "Russia and the Remainder of Europe and Asia," thanks to being on Mercator's projection, immensely exaggerates the relative size of Russia compared with that of the "remainder." It is needless to take up here the many mistakes in the text.

And yet Senator Beveridge's book has interest and even value. It is the result of the effort of an intelligent, if untutored, mind to appreciate a number of very important facts. If the writer takes a great deal on hearsay evidence, he nevertheless shows considerable judgment, and his conclusions, when stripped of rhetoric, are often both fair and sane. The freshness of his impressions, as well as the pleasing confidence that what he is communicating is quite new, lend at times a certain charm to the style, and he is generous in his estimates of people whose whole manner of thought is at the opposite pole from his own. He has undoubtedly learned much from his travels, and therefore many of his readers may in their turn learn not a little from him, even if the information thus acquired will now and then be far from exact.

Japanese Physical Training. By H. Irving Hancock. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The appearance of this engaging work suggests the resources and reserve powers of Japanese civilization. The very existence of this system of physical culture (*jū-jutsu*), which has grown up during a thousand years or more, has until recently been unnoticed, indeed, hardly suspected, even by foreigners long resident in the country. True, it has often seemed a mystery to onlookers how it could happen that a little Japanese policeman—"a monkey," as a Russian sailor would playfully call him—could tackle three or four of the Czar's subjects from the ships, especially when full of vodka, and not only lay them flat, but bring them all into the station house. Yet every one of the Mikado's policemen in these days, even as every samurai of old feudal days, holds the secret. It is a method by which Jack overcomes the Giant.

Jū-jutsu is not even referred to in Chamberlain's 'Things Japanese,' nor in Rein's encyclopædic book. Hepburn's Dictionary defines it as "the art of wrestling or throwing others by sleight." Nor must we be led away by the colloquial of the lower classes. Hepburn defines the pure Japanese term *yawara* as a "sleight, trick, or knack." Yet jū-jutsu, which is a Sinico-Japanese term, means literally muscle-science, not "muscle breaking." It is neither boxing nor wrestling. It seems curious that even the author, who has photographed and described accurately and thoroughly, withal interestingly, the thing itself, in writing *jiu-jitsu* has not spelled the word, nor has he defined it, correctly. Jutsu, both in the Chinese ideograph and as written in the Japanese *kana*, and as used in the spoken language, is the common word for art, science, rules, artifice, etc. So, also, the term jū or jiu means the cords of the body or muscles.

It is probably the close secrecy with which this fine art has been guarded that has led the vulgar to suppose it was trickery as against fair play, rather than science and training as opposed to brute force and clumsiness. It was seen and examined into in March, 1871, as described in 'The Mikado's Empire' (p. 433), though the term is not used in that text, the author having been in the country only a few days. As he writes, the exhibitions "bore a frightful resemblance to real choking, dislocation of arm, wringing of the neck, etc." As the text shows, the jū-jutsu came after the regular wrestlings and throwings. The "unearthly yells and exclamations" of the vanquished correspond to the humiliating cry "Enough" of our pugilistic ring, saving the worsted from agony and death.

Apart from Mr. Hancock's references to history, which are not those of a critical scholar, and his pardonable admiration of the Japanese, who, in the author's eyes, are "at present the strongest and healthiest race in the world," he writes with full understanding of his subject, for he studied under native masters in Japan during seven years. He has thus made a real addition to the literature of physical training. Beside the fine art of jū-jutsu our football seems rather the butting of bulls or the hunting of tigers. The Japanese system is one which requires first of all a healthy stomach as the basis of all strength, the development and maintenance of the heart, lungs, arms, and legs in their best condition, the cultivation of an even temper, and the constant and plentiful use of pure water and good air. After ninety-six pages very properly devoted to the groundwork of his subject (which the hasty and foolish reader will probably skip), the author passes on to preliminary feats of attack and defence. He then proceeds to show the various tricks of offence and defence. The standard illustration of the "crazy-bone" enables one to get an idea of the general rationale and methods of jū-jutsu. Whether the osteopath knows it or not, there are certain points in the muscles of the limbs and of the body which, when pinched, pressed hard, or struck quickly, produce either paralysis, or excessive pain that amounts to the same thing. Conversely, by exercise and hardening, these tender places can be made fairly immune against thrust, blow, or pressure.

Most of the movements of the art may be learned in a few months, but there are secrets and special lines of expertness which only the masters know. Dr. Inazo Nitobe, in his 'Bushido: The Soul of Japan' (Philadelphia, 1900), says (pp. 60-62): "Jū-jutsu may be briefly defined as an application of anatomical knowledge to the purpose of offence and defence. It differs from wrestling in that it does not depend upon muscular strength." It uses no weapon. Its object is not to kill, but to incapacitate one for action during the time being. Several of the blows, even some that are backhanded, may cause death, as, for example, by breaking the neck; while the solar plexus may, for self-defence, be so hardened as to stand a heavy blow, or, in the case of an enemy, may be reached by either knee or fist.

It is not necessary to go into further detail. Probably, as in any other art, the hundred per cent. of actual possession means one of theory and ninety-nine of practice. The reader will enjoy and the student will master this clear and thorough presentation of an art that has helped to make the little brown men of Japan such superb soldiers and such wonderful policemen. The Japanese people may not—even though the city of Tokio alone has *nine hundred* public bathhouses, and rheumatism is nearly unknown in the empire—be, as the author asserts, "the calmest, coolest, happiest, bravest, and strongest people in the world." Nevertheless, now that the common people have entered into their inheritance of all that was once the monopoly of the noble and the gentleman during feudalism, it is quite possible, since science has

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eliminated the old diseases, that, as a race, the Japanese may be equal in physique to any in the world. The question is certainly worthy of serious examination why the American people suffer from neuræsthenia, while in Japan nervous prostration is hardly more than known.

Since we have adopted hara-kiri, jinriki-sha, kimono, and other Japanese words into the language, if so be that the Japanese of jū-jutsu is coming to reform our athletic ways, let us get the word correctly expressed in writing and speech, as well as the thing in happy practice.

A Reader's History of American Literature. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson and Henry Walcott Boynton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

This summary—it is intended, and very well adapted, for use as a text-book—is based on a course of Lowell lectures delivered in January, 1903, in Boston, by Mr. Higginson. The essential feature of the book is that it concentrates the reader's (or student's) attention upon leading figures. The assistance of Mr. Boynton was employed for the purpose of revision. The personal reminiscences introduced are Mr. Higginson's, and the book seems essentially his. Its arrangement is simple and clear, and it gives a comprehensive survey of the subject in a small compass. The plan selected is that of groups, schools, and periods, of which eight or nine are given. Anne Bradstreet, Cotton Mather, and Jonathan Edwards were Puritan writers. Secular writers, *i. e.*, the non-Puritan writers of the earlier colonial days, include Fisher Ames, Freneau, and Samuel Sewall (it will be seen that the periods overlap one another); Franklin's writings belong to the Philadelphia period, an era for which justification is found not only in Franklin, but in Charles Brockden Brown, and in the *Portfolio*, the Pennsylvania forerunner of the *Atlantic Monthly*. The New York period follows, with Irving and Cooper, to say nothing of their Knickerbocker followers, who (the late John Richard Dennett is quoted here as saying, in an article published in the *Nation*) "did something towards fertilizing the soil." Then we have the New England period, which includes the Cambridge group (Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Lowell), and the Concord group (Emerson, Margaret Fuller, Alcott, Hawthorne, and Thoreau). The Southern influence (Whitman, Hayne, Timrod, Poe, and others) would bring us to the end but for the Western influence (*e. g.*, Mark Twain, Bret Harte, and last, not least, Howells).

A good deal of this is rather arbitrary. Hawthorne's name, for instance, is associated in an important way with Concord, but the influences which produced Thoreau and Alcott left Hawthorne, so far as the visible results go, almost untouched. So, Howells is unquestionably a Western man, but he has long had an Eastern habitat, and his Americans are not "sectional." Henry James is mentioned only incidentally, and as if his cosmopolitanism had made Mr. Higginson almost doubt his right to be included in a list of American authors.

The book ends with a forecast, which, however, contains nothing that is new. After all, one may say, in closing such a compendium, why do these Americans trouble themselves so much about the future? They have made an American literature in a hundred years, and the world resounds with their names. If they have not, as Mr. Higginson says, produced a Shakspere, or a Voltaire, or a Goethe, a Schiller or a Heine, they have done far more than any one expected them to do, and have certainly given the lie to the theory that the materialism of the country was so gross as to preclude all literary growth, or that science would kill literature, or that puritanism would congeal it. What the future has in store for us we cannot say; but of one thing we may be sure, that all good literature, here as elsewhere, will be produced by those who keep the traditions of good literature alive, and aim, not at Americanism, but excellence. We are surprised, by the way, at the slighting praise given here to 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' and the suggestion that the Northern reader finds it hard "to understand the enthusiasm with which it was received, both here and abroad."

The Mysteries of Mithra. By Franz Cumont. Translated by T. J. McCormack. Chicago: The Open Court Publishing Co. 1903.

In the history of the encounters of the two continents there has been more than one moment when Asia and the ideas of Asia threatened to submerge Europe and obliterate the structure of Greek and Roman civilization. In such a crisis, about the middle of the third Christian century, it seemed possible that Mithraism would triumph over its rival, Christianity, and that the Persian mysteries, which had long been encouraged by the Roman legions, would be accepted by the whole Roman world. Mithraism was a form of sun-worship, though Mithra was not originally identified with the sun-god. By the time that Aurelian, in 273 A. D., founded, by the side of the Mithraic mysteries, a public religion in honor of the *Sol invictus*, the distinction had ceased to be emphasized. Diocletian, like Aurelian, encouraged, for political reasons, a sect that, unlike Christianity, was ready to conciliate the interests of the state. The followers of Mithra were eager to compromise; their aim was a sort of vague synthesis of the gods of Greece and Rome with their own bull-slaying Persian deity; they were willing to carry the weight of the whole past of Paganism. That was the secret, firstly of their success in making converts among the legionaries at the Eastern outposts, and secondly of the favor shown to them by the Roman authorities. Christianity allowed no such compromise. Mithraism supported the pretensions of the Cæsars, who, recognizing that the Oriental zeal for apotheosis could be turned to account, acepted the sun's epithet of *invictus* and adopted his radiate crown as the symbol of their sovereignty. The conversion of Constantine reversed this policy. Under his successor, Constantius, "no one longer dared to look at the rising or setting sun; even farmers and sailors refrained from observing the stars."

In the fourth century the apostasy of the Emperor Julian renewed the worship of Mithra. He believed that he had a peculiar calling to follow in the sun's train, and the identification of deities, Hellenic, Roman, and Eastern, which had been going on for centuries, reached its climax in his elaborate effort to conciliate theism and polytheism in his conception of Mithra. He contrived that all the gods of paganism should play their parts as manifestations of the power and beneficence of the sun-god; the result was a monotheistic worship which his devotion to the teaching of Plato had rendered inevitable. Julian's death put an end to this artificial reaction, and the temples of Mithra were again ravaged and his altars desecrated. Thus ended the most powerful rival of the Christian doctrine and ritual; but not till it had left indelible traces of its beliefs in the traditions of the Christian church.

M. Cumont points out that the extent to which Mithraism was imitated by Christianity can be gathered most easily from the remains of Mithraic sculpture. The Christian marble-cutters reproduced from the Mithraic monuments the symbols of the older faith. The resemblances of Mithraism and Christianity are as striking as their differences are essential.

"Both religions placed a flood at the beginning of history; both assigned a primitive revelation as the source of their traditions; both believed in baptism, held Sunday sacred, and celebrated the birth of their gods on Christmas Day; both practised the rites of communion; and both believed in the immortality of the soul, in a last judgment, and in the resurrection of the dead."

Women were not admitted to the mysteries of Mithra, a blunder in tactics which was avoided by the Christians. The religion that made no other concessions, triumphed at last after several centuries; but the Mithraic monuments are spread from the borders of Scotland to the farthest limits of Persia, and are found alike in the mountains of Hungary and the deserts of Africa. M. Cumont has reproduced the remains of the Mithraic temples and monuments, and presents in the present work a collection of evidence and a careful discussion of Mithraism such as has not hitherto existed for the student of the history of religions. That the story of the predominance of Mithraism has been so neglected is strange when one considers that to underrate its importance is to obscure the history of the struggles of Christianity with the most powerful of its rivals. The translation of M. Cumont's work by Mr. McCormack is careful and accurate, and the illustrations are well reproduced.

An Agnostic's Apology, and Other Essays. By Sir Leslie Stephen. Second edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903.

The essays other than that which gives this book its title were originally magazine articles, but are now, as appears from a note prefixed to the present edition, made into chapters of one consecutive whole. As 'An Agnostic's Apology' was first published twenty-five or thirty years ago, we take it that the new form in which it is given to the world is put forward by the author in solemn reaffirmation of his creed. As such it will no doubt attract some attention, but little discussion. For a variety of reasons the creed of Huxley (for Huxley was the leading early expounder of it) has not become avowedly widespread. The faith of Gnostics, as Sir Leslie Stephen calls the great body of believers, has been little shaken by it. Agnostics do not, as a rule, care to proselyte; indeed, a propaganda of skepticism is almost inconceivable. To

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convert the world, there would have to be agnostic protagonists and martyrs, to say nothing of an agnostic church, which is a contradiction in terms. Even persecution of agnostics as such by gnostics is difficult to imagine, for most real skeptics have a constitutional aversion to the stake. Skepticism cuts very deep, and among the things which it is apt to undermine is the belief that it is wrong to conform. Huxley, if we remember right, conformed to the practices of the religious world about him, and recommended others to do the same. Besides all this, the foundations of belief and dogma have in the last fifty years been so thoroughly analyzed that even the gnostics now recognize a difference in kind between scientific and theological belief, and it was really a deep-seated confusion between the two which led to all the trouble in the past. Consequently, though there is no external warfare or crusade, agnosticism may be spreading all the time; there are no statistics.

What Sir Leslie Stephen has written on the subject is well worth reading. Logically, there is no reply to his position. The great question is whether agnosticism marks out the direction in which human thought is inevitably moving, or whether it is an attitude so alien to the human heart that it must always be the creed of a select coterie of philosophers. Some persons shudder at the idea of a world filled with agnostics; but for them there should be some consolation in the reflection that, in parting with religion, we should also say good-bye, if we possessed any self-respect, to metaphysics.

Animal Education: An Experimental Study on the Psychical Development of the White Rat, Correlated with the Growth of its Nervous System. By John B. Watson, Ph.D. The University of Chicago Press. 1903.

Dr. Watson takes his departure from the studies of Flechsig on the development of the fibrous connections of the association centres of the human cerebral cortex. Flechsig teaches that the cerebral cortex is divisible into two great areas: (1) the "sensory spheres," embracing all of the regions of the cortex bound to the lower nervous centres by projection fibres, and forming the greatest reflex apparatus of the nervous system presiding "over the animal life"; (2) the regions of the cortex lacking projection fibres, but connected with the sensory spheres by association fibres (fibres which, unlike the projection fibres, do not leave the cortex, but unite the various portions of the cortex to one another). These regions are known as "centres of association."

The sensory spheres are found in all animals possessing a functional cerebral cortex, but the centres of association are found only in man and the higher mammals. "It is in these centres of association that psychical activity finds the elements of all our intellectual life. In these centres is the substratum of all human experience, knowledge, language, sentiments, and morals." Flechsig has studied the development in the human infant of the medullary sheaths of the projection fibres which connect the sensory spheres with lower nervous centres, and of the association fibres which connect the centres of association with the sensory spheres and with each other; and, on the assumption that these fibre tracts do not begin to function until their insulating medullary sheaths are developed, he has constructed an elaborate theory of the correlation of the mental and cerebral development.

Mr. Watson writes: "My purpose in undertaking the present work was to see how far the theory of Flechsig would hold in the case of the white rat, and to attempt, if possible, a correlation between the increasing complexity of the psychical life of this animal and the increasing number of medullated fibres in its central nervous system." He finds that the white rat is capable of learning very complicated tricks which involve the formation of associations similar to those involved in dogs and other higher mammals, and probably fundamentally similar to some of the simpler human associations. In this he confirms the previous careful experimental work of Small, and deems it impossible to harmonize this with the statement that association centres are absent in animals as lowly organized as the rodents, provided such centres are necessary for these mental processes, as Flechsig believes. He also devised a series of tricks of increasing complexity, from the simplest possible reaction (such as finding the way back to the mother when separated a short distance) to the opening of a box containing food by means of a complicated latch which could be sprung only by a movement of an inclined plane on the opposite side of the box. A litter of new-born rats was set apart for experimentation, to determine at what age each of these tricks could be learned. These tests, when completed, gave an approximate measure of the psychical development of the white rat. They revealed, for instance, no evidence of memory in rats under ten days old, while the rat is "psychically mature" at about twenty-three days old—that is, the rat can perform the most complicated test used in the experiments.

The details of these experiments are very interesting. In most cases a test box made of wire netting was used with food inside, and the process by which the rats learned to get in to reach the food was accurately observed and closely timed. The entrance varied from a mere hole in the bottom covered with sawdust to a complicated labyrinth with blind passages and various obstacles, or the box was closed by latches of various degrees of intricacy. With young rats a single successful solution of the problem was sufficient to fix the whole process in memory in the case of some of the simpler tests, but in the most elaborate test box it took fifty successful repetitions to complete the learning of the trick so that it was performed rapidly and accurately.

Having discovered the stages in the psychical development of the young rats, so far as measurable by such laboratory tests, the author proceeded to prepare microscopical sections of the brains and spinal cords of young rats of corresponding stages from birth to maturity. The special problem here was to test the validity of Flechsig's conclusions as to the functional significance of the development of medullary sheaths on the nerve fibres. He finds no medullated nerve fibres in the nervous system, either central or peripheral, of the white rat at birth, nor for a day or two thereafter. Yet these rats are sensitive at birth, and exhibit numerous well-defined reflexes. Clearly, the spinal cord and reflex nervous system can function while the nerve fibres involved are still unmedullated. At from ten to thirteen days after birth, the previous experiments gave clear evidence of memory, particularly for olfactory stimuli; but at these ages the olfactory tract is entirely unmedullated, showing clearly that medullated fibres are not necessary for the transmission of nerve impulses involved in conscious processes. Finally, at twenty-four days, when the animal is regarded as "psychically mature"—that is, capable of learning anything that an adult rat can learn—the number of medullated fibres in the cerebral cortex is only about one-fifth the number in the adult rat.

It is therefore concluded that (1) medullated fibres are not a *conditio sine qua non* of the rat's forming and retaining definite associations; and (2) the complexity of the psychical life increases much more rapidly than does the medullation process in the cortex—psychical maturity being reached when approximately only one-fifth of the total number in the cortex are medullated. These results may seem pitifully meagre when set over against the great philosophical problems involved. Yet they do represent a definite step in the advance of our knowledge of the correlation between cerebral structure and psychic function—a step which clearly opens up the way in several directions for further research; and one positive fact is worth volumes of à priori theorizing, for both science and philosophy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adventures of Elizabeth in Rügen. By the Author of Elizabeth and her German Garden. The Macmillan Co.

Barth, Theodor. Politische Porträts. Berlin: Georg Reimer. Paper, 2m.; bound, 2.80m.

Bradford, Charles. The Angler's Secret. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 net.

Delanne, Gabriel. Evidence for a Future Life. Translated from the French by H. A. Dallas. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Eakle, Arthur S. Mineral Tables. John Wiley & Sons. $1.25.

Ewell, John Louis. The Story of Byfield, a New England Parish. Boston: George E. Littlefield.

Fact versus Fiction. Cobden Club's Reply to Mr. Chamberlain. Cassell & Co. 1s. net.

Forty Songs by Johannes Brahms. Edited by James Huneker. (The Musicians' Library.) Boston: Oliver Ditson Co.

Garnett, Richard, and Gosse, Edmund. English Literature. Four vols. Vols. II. and IV. The Macmillan Co. $6 net each.

Geoke, Charles, and Gould, F. Carruther. John Bull's Adventures in the Fiscal Wonderland. London: Methuen & Co. 2s. 6d. net.

Gibbons, Edward E. The Eye: Its Refraction and Diseases. The Macmillan Co.

Graham, Joseph A. The Sporting Dog. The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

Haskins, Charles Waldo. Business Education and Accountancy. Harper & Bros. $2 net.

Hazell's Annual for 1904. Edited by W. Palmer. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney. 3s. 6d. net.

Henderson, Mary Foote. The Aristocracy of Health. Washington: The Colton Pub. Co. $1.50 net.

Houston, Harry. The Macmillan Series of Writing Books. 1 to 6. The Macmillan Co.

Johnson, Thomas Cary. Life and Letters of Robert Lewis Dabney. Richmond, Va.: The Presbyterian Committee of Publication.

Kent's Educational Theory. Translated and edited by Edward Franklin Buchner. (Lippincott Educational Series, Vol. IV.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Louis, Minnie Dessau. Hannah and her Seven Sons. (Verse.) Second ed. Published by the Author, 102 W. 75th St.

Lucas, C. P. Geography of South and East Africa. Revised to 1903 by Hugh Edward Egerton. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 3s. 6s.

Mack, William, and Nash, Howard P. Cyclopedia of Law and Procedure. Vol X. The American Law Book Co.

Manual of Medicine. Edited by W. H. Allchin. Vol. V., Diseases of the Abdomen. The Macmillan Co. $2.

Marshall, J. T. The Book of Job. (Commentary.) Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.

McCormick, John Newton. The Litany and the Life. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. $1 net.

Modern English Prose. Selected and edited by George Rice Carpenter and William Tenney Brewster. The Macmillan Co. $1.10.

Murdoch, James, and Yamagata, Isoh. A History of Japan, 1542-1651. Tokio: Isoh Yamagata, 10 Nishikatamachi, Hongo.

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Nollen, John Scholte. Chronology and Bibliography of Modern German Literature. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $1.
Parliamentary Papers, 1801-1900. London: P. S. King & Son.
Poem of the Cid. Vol. III. Notes by Archer M. Huntington. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Putnam, Rufus. Memoirs. Compiled by Miss Rowena Buell. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Roberts, Peter. Anthracite Coal Communities. The Macmillan Co. $3.50.
Scarborough, Mildred. The Signal Light. (Fiction.) Philadelphia: The American Baptist Publication Society. $1 net, postage 8 cents.
Shortt, Adam. Imperial Preferential Trade from a Canadian Point of View. Toronto: Morang & Co.
Smirnoff, Eugene. Russian Orthodox Missions. London: Rivingtons.
Streeter, John Williams. The Fat of the Land—the Story of an American Farm. The Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Villiers du Terrage, Baron Marc de. Les Dernières Années de la Louisiane Française. Paris: E. Guilmoto. 15 fr.
Waldseemüller Maps of 1507 and 1516. Facsimile reproductions, edited by Jos. Fischer and Fr. R. v. Wieser. London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles. In loose form in a portfolio, $14.35 net; bound in half leather, $15.35 net; mounted on linen for hanging, $18 net.
Young, Rose E. Henderson. (Fiction.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

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